AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNER AUTONOMY SUPPORT AND STUDENT MOTIVATION IN THE JAPANESE UNIVERSITY SETTING

by

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explores how students can be helped by learner autonomy-focused instruction to develop motivation in learning English in a Japanese university EFL setting. It also aims to ascertain the factors in learner autonomy support that account for its relationship with a higher degree of students' motivation. Both quantitative and qualitative data from 21 students in the group with learner autonomy support (including metacognitive awareness-raising, instruction of learning strategies, and the use of extrinsic rewards) and 19 students who received the conventional instruction without learner autonomy support were analyzed. The focus of the analysis is to determine the trajectory of motivational development in terms of type and the students' perception of their level of motivation using the self-determination theory (SDT) framework over 13 weeks of instruction in a university English course. Results suggest that students receiving learner autonomy support performed better and were more motivated than students who did not receive the support. They also indicate that increased and more self-determined motivational development occurred only in the students who received autonomy support.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background information

In recent years, it has been an issue of importance for many Japanese teachers of English to enhance student motivation in learning English (Irie, 2003; Hiromori, 2006; Yamamori, 2006). Working as an English teacher for more than two decades at several Japanese universities, I have been engaged in this challenging work of teaching English to Japanese students. My concern is that the system for teaching English in Japan has not changed, while the environment around students has changed dramatically.

Over the last two decades, the requirements for English language ability in Japan have significantly changed with the rapidly increasing demands of globalization in many fields, such as the economy, the environment, and culture. In addition, during the last few years, the employment situation in Japan has changed dramatically. For example, based on projections regarding expected population decreases in the country and a shrinking domestic market, more and more companies have moved their production and sales bases overseas. Many companies have begun to seek talented personnel who possess a high level of English. Several companies intentionally employ people educated outside of Japan, or people with a nationality other than Japanese. In the meantime, a high

unemployment rate among new Japanese graduates is emerging, which has become a serious social problem. Some companies are demanding that all their meetings be conducted in English, setting English as the "common language in the company". Despite these changes, caused by internal Japanese problems, English teaching in Japan has not yet been ready to change to address these serious and urgent challenges.

Why has English teaching in secondary and tertiary education failed to change to meet the demand of globalization in the society? There appears to be numerous reasons. The most serious reason may lie in the fact that, unlike in other Asian countries, there is little commitment by the Japanese government to establish a firm language education policy to survive in a globalizing world. Only recently has the Japanese government decided to start introducing English instruction in primary education. However, it will be implemented with insufficient support for the classroom teachers in schools.

Secondary and tertiary education blame each other for the continuing criticism that Japanese people are not able to use English (i.e., being able to speak and comprehend English), despite ten lengthy years of English language instruction in secondary and tertiary education (O'Donnell, 2003). It is often the case that, in the study abroad program of my university, many students are extremely shocked to learn that they cannot say anything meaningful to their classmates, while other students from Asia or the Middle East are able to communicate in

English, even if they lack appropriate grammatical knowledge.

Secondary education blames the system of the university entrance examination for poor English skills that only assesses reading comprehension and grammatical knowledge. Tertiary education criticizes high school teachers for teaching only the English skills the teachers themselves possess, this being grammar and translation (O'Donnell, 2003, Nakata, 2006).

The Japanese media may also be partly responsible for deficits in English in relation to this criticism. They primarily bring us detailed domestic news. Only a small amount of world news is broadcast in a limited amount of time. Amazingly, little overseas information is available through the ordinary media, resulting in a problem of accessibility for students regarding important world issues, such as environmental problems, food crises, and ethnic conflicts in Africa, the Middle East, and Eastern Europe.

Naturally, many students come to think that, in the future, they can safely live and work in Japan without making any real contact with countries other than Japan. It is not surprising that many high school students cannot imagine themselves using English in their future and do not feel any real need to learn English as a foreign language (Muroi, 2006).

1.2. Challenges in the present study

My strongest motivation for the present study is generated from the reality that I have to accept and support students who have suffered from this insufficient system of English language teaching. There is a dichotomy in students in my university. On the one hand, we have students who have passed the entrance examination English test. They are usually from more academically-oriented high schools. Although their speaking and listening skills may be somewhat insufficient, it is not a large challenge to motivate these students who have sufficient grammatical knowledge and reading skills to acquire other skills, such as skills in public speaking, discussion, interpreting, and making presentations. These students are usually assigned to advanced level groups.

On the other hand, we have students who have entered my university without taking an English test. These students are usually from less academically-oriented high schools. Most have experienced repeated failure in English learning, have not established learning habits, and have very limited motivation to learn English. I am strongly motivated to help these students become motivated, autonomous learners, as this has been shown to lead to successful learning experiences (Simmons, 1996, Nunan et al., 1999, Benson, 2001). In order to meet this challenge, I have come to realize that I need a theoretical basis to explore the teaching strategies to help them become autonomous learners. I have commenced this study to address this need. In

exploring the teaching strategies to help students enhance their motivation to learn English and become autonomous learners, I decided to incorporate useful research outcomes from past motivation research, primarily from two different fields. One is the field of educational psychology and the other is the field of language learning. In the field of educational psychology, I focused on the cognitive theories of development, because they are directly linked to human behaviour. In the field of language learning, the areas of focus are more difficult to select, because motivation research in the field of language learning is rather multipolarized with different perspectives, or different, but similar approaches.

There seems to be many groups of researchers studying motivation in language learning, including educational psychologists interested in second/foreign language (L2) learning, second language acquisition (SLA) researchers interested in autonomy, SLA researchers interested in learner development and learning strategies, and L2 researchers interested in educational psychology. Dörnyei (2005) describes this situation as follows:

> Although the study of language learning motivation has undoubtedly been one of the most developed areas within SLA research, it has virtually no links with other SLA research traditions, resulting in what appears to be a total lack of integration of motivation research into the traditional domain of applied linguistics (p. 108).

Dörnyei (2005) explains that the main questions that L2 motivation researchers have traditionally asked are “What are the motivational characteristics of the

students who decided to study an L2?" and "How do different types of motivational dispositions affect L2 learning achievement?" (p. 109). The first of these questions is less helpful than the second for the present study, as the students of the present study "have not decided to study L2" and their motivation is extremely limited. Furthermore, there is no real L2 community in the language learning environment for the students in the present study.

Regarding the SLA researchers themselves, Dörnyei (2005) explains that "SLA researchers have concentrated on the process of language development in learners who have already made a commitment to L2 learning, without being too concerned about what exactly initiated this process" (p.109). If this is the case, their research also seems to be less helpful, because the students in the present study have never previously "made a commitment to L2 learning", although their process-oriented perspective is attractive. Thus, which of these research traditions should I follow? My answer is both. The reasons for this are as follows:

1. The students in the present study have a very limited level of motivation. No commitment to L2 learning is expected at the beginning of the language course.
2. Understanding the developmental nature of motivation is required for the study. Students are expected to develop their motivation in a process during the language course.
3. There is no L2 community surrounding the students of the present study. It is a complete university English as a foreign language (EFL) setting.

My challenge is to explore how these limitedly-motivated students gradually become self-motivated learners, or more autonomous learners by learner autonomy-focused instruction. To successfully accomplish this goal, I shall seek practical ideas for instruction from the literature, including effective autonomy support. I will also explore the autonomy support necessary for the students' process of motivational development. For these purposes, I shall incorporate useful concepts and ideas from educational psychology, L2 motivation research, SLA learner autonomy research, and learning strategies research.

1.3. The aim of the study and the research questions

The purpose of the present study is to explore how students can be helped by learner autonomy-focused instruction to develop motivation in learning English in a Japanese university EFL setting. It also aims to ascertain the factors in learner autonomy support that account for its relationship with students' perception of their level of motivation. This overall aim generates the following research questions.

Research Question 1

What effect does learner autonomy-focused instruction (including metacognitive awareness- raising, instruction of learning strategies, and the use of extrinsic rewards) have on the students' perception of their level of motivation?

Research Question 2

In what ways do the different types of learner autonomy support relate to the development of student motivation?

Research question 2 is subdivided into six further questions:

2a. When and how does student motivational development occur in the two groups?

2b. How does a student' sense of efficacy affect their motivation to learn?

2c. What are the major reasons that relate to student motivation to learn other than the sense of efficacy?

2d. What are the major reasons for diminished student motivation towards learning?

2e. How does self-monitoring of learning affect student motivation?

2f. How does setting goals enhance student motivation to learn?

Research Question 3

What effect does the learner autonomy-focused instruction (including metacognitive awareness- raising, instruction of learning strategies, and the use of extrinsic rewards) have on the students' *performance* on class tests?

1.4. The outline of the thesis

The present study is organized as follows. In Chapter 1, an overview of the

research with background information is provided. This includes challenges in conducting the present study. The aims and research questions of the present study are also introduced. In Chapter 2, motivational constructs and the major theories in the field of educational psychology are reviewed. More specifically, two major concepts, self-regulated learning and self-determination theory (SDT) within the cognitive approach of educational psychology, are discussed. Since both of these concepts treat motivation as a developmental process, they are relevant to the instruction model for the present study. Preceding the examination of these two approaches, the underlying concepts that affect these two self-related approaches, expectancy-value theory and attribution theory, are examined.

In Chapter 3, motivation as a process is examined from the viewpoint of language learning. First, an overview of the paradigm shift that L2 motivation research experienced is given. In addition, an examination of the following research areas is conducted: L2 motivation research focusing on a process of learning and motivation, the concepts of learner autonomy in SLA, the concepts of learning strategies in SLA, motivational teaching practice based on the theories of educational psychology in L2 motivation research, and the application of SDT in L2 motivation research.

In Chapter 4, a description is given of the research methods employed to gather data for analysis to answer the research questions in the present study.

Additionally, explanations are given for the research design. Details are provided on the learner autonomy-focused instruction. In Chapter 5, results are reported from both quantitative and qualitative data. The collected data is analyzed in five sections to answer the research questions. These sections include the impact of training on students' perception of their level of motivation, the motivational development of students, qualitative research into the relationship between autonomy support and student motivation, a comparison of the students' performance in class tests in the course in the group with learner autonomy-focused instruction and the group with conventional instruction without learner autonomy support, and qualitative research into the individual case.

In Chapter 6, a number of findings in Chapter 5 are discussed in depth. From these findings, a model of a positive spiral of successful learning with increased motivation is proposed. In addition, strategies for the provision of stronger autonomy support, including cognitive and metacognitive learning skills and improved study habits, are suggested for unsuccessful students, such as the students identified in the case study. In Chapter 7, the immediate implications of the findings made in the thesis are discussed, along with the possible improvements to the learner autonomy-focused instruction. In addition, the limitations of the study and the recommended future research are also noted.

CHAPTER TWO

UNDERSTANDING MOTIVATION AS A PROCESS FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

2.1. Introduction

The purpose of the present study is to explore how students can be helped by learner autonomy-focused instruction to develop motivation in learning English in a Japanese university EFL setting. It also aims to ascertain the factors in learner autonomy that account for its relationship with students' perception of their level of motivation. For these purposes, it is useful to review the research outcomes of educational psychology regarding the major constructs in motivation.

Motivation research in educational psychology is divided into three major areas: biological, behavioural, and cognitive motivation. The biological approach attempts to understand the physical underpinnings of motivated behaviour. The behavioural approach examines the relationship of motivation to other concepts, such as learning in the activation of motivated behaviour. The central concern of the behavioural approach includes the concepts of drive, incentive motivation, and learned motives. The cognitive approach is based on the assumption that organisms can act in purposive ways to pursue anticipated goals. Areas of

motivation research within the cognitive approach include expectancy-value theory, consistency theory, self-perception theory, social learning theory, actualization theory, and attribution theory (Petri, 1991). For the present study, only the cognitive theories of development are discussed, because they are directly linked to human (not animals) behaviour in learning. Also, among various attempts in a wide range of approaches, self-related concepts are to be examined as a central concept of motivation. This is because motivation is caused by perception on and around the self.

In this chapter, two major concepts, self-regulated learning, and its more concrete model of self-determination theory, are closely examined because both concepts treat motivation as a developmental process. Preceding the examination of these two approaches, the underlying concepts that, in many ways, affect these two self-related approaches are examined. They include two important motivation research tracts in the cognitive approach: expectancy-value theory and attribution theory.

2.1.1. An underlying concept of cognitive motivational theories: Expectancy-value theory

Summarizing the construct of expectancy, Bandura (1991) revealed that when people have a higher expectancy for activities, certain behaviour can secure specific outcomes. The more highly those outcomes are valued, the greater is the

motivation to perform the activity. The aspect of expectancy has been investigated by applying cognitive perspectives on motivation among many educational psychologists.

Atkinson (1964) was one of the first researchers focused on developing the early model of expectancy-value theory. His model of achievement motivation combined the construct of needs, expectancy, and value, claiming that behaviour was a multiplicative function of motives, a probability for success, and an incentive value. Motives involve the desire or need to seek success and avoid failure.

Based on Atkinson's model, Covington (1992) proposed four general types of students based on the two motives claiming that these two motives, success and failure, are orthogonal to each other. The four types of students are; success oriented students, failure avoiders, overstrivers, and failure accepters. The first type, success oriented students, are those who are highly motivated by success, but not significantly motivated by fear of failure. These students frequently engage in achievement activities and are not anxious by performance. The second type, failure avoiders, is high in fear of failure and low in motives for success. These students are anxious and reluctant to engage in academic achievement work. The third type of students is overstrivers, who are high in the two motives of success and failure. These students work very hard to achieve good results, but they also feel anxious and stressed by the fear of failure. The

fourth type of students is failure accepters. These students are low in both motives. They are indifferent to any results in academic achievements (Covington, 1992).

Atkinson's (1964) model also reflects a person's subjective belief about the probability and incentive value of success. The incentive value of success is regarded as a pride in accomplishment. If the task is difficult, the incentive value of success in that task is higher than that of a simple task.

Atkinson's early model of expectancy is important, because of its focus on cognition and beliefs, in contrast to overt behaviour and the related constructs of drives, needs, and habit. More recently, three general approaches to achievement motivation focusing on expectancy were introduced. The first approach was proposed by Wigfield and Eccles (1992). In line with the early expectancy-value theory by Atkinson, they focus on the role of students' expectancies for academic success and the associated perceived value for the academic task. When students perceive that the task is valuable to them and there is an expected probability of success, their motivation is likely to be enhanced.

The second approach to achievement motivation was proposed by Harter (1985). Its focus is on the self-perception of competence. In this approach, the self-perception of competence is domain specific and a cognitive judgment of skills and ability. When students believe they can do the task, their motivation is

likely to be enhanced.

The third approach to achievement motivation is Bandura's (1991, 1997) approach, focusing on self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined as "a judgment of one's ability to organize and execute given types of performances" (Bandura, 1997, p. 21). This definition is similar to the task-specific self-concept or the self-perception of competence. However, there are some important differences. First, self-efficacy includes behavioural actions, or cognitive skills, such as "organize" or "execute," necessary for competent performance. The second difference is that self-efficacy is used in reference to some kind of goal (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). There is a causal relationship between beliefs of personal efficacy and outcome expectation. Outcome expectation is a judgment of the likely consequence that the performance will produce. Bandura (1997) suggests that outcome expectations are heavily dependent on efficacy judgments. The concept of efficacy is examined more closely in relation to self-regulated learning in the latter section (Section 2.2.4.).

Expectancy-value theories are important for the present study in developing the instruction model for students with limited levels of motivation and limited levels of proficiency in learning English. For the effective learner autonomy support, instructions and class tests should be designed in an appropriate level so that students with a limited level of motivation can possess reasonable expectations for their successful learning.

2.1.2. An underlying concept of cognitive motivational theories: Attribution

The concept of self is another central concept in the attribution construct of motivation. Self is important, because attributing an outcome to the self results in different affects and actions than does ascribing an outcome to factors that reside outside the self (Weiner, 1991). Weiner, the greatest contributor to attribution theory to date, postulates that students attribute their outcomes (successes, failures) to factors such as ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. Attribution and expectancy are closely related. An expectancy is a belief that one thing will follow from another, while an attribution is a belief that one thing has followed as a result of another. Thus, while expectancy and attribution are generally the same, the difference lies in the time in which we regard the events or performances (Petri, 1990). Weiner's model of attribution includes the function of expectancy.

According to Weiner (1991), a minimum of four elements are important in the interpretation of an achievement related event: ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. Ability primarily results from past experiences. Past successful experiences will lead students to believe that they have certain abilities in certain areas. Past failures will reduce a students' belief in their ability. Effort is judged by a variety of factors including time spent and muscular effort. Students tend to perceive themselves as having expended more effort when they are successful at a task.

Both ability and effort are regarded as internal characteristics. Task difficulty is judged primarily by the social norm. Observing that most others fail leads students to infer that the task is very difficult. Luck is considered to be involved in a task when students have no control over the outcome of the task. Both the difficulty of the task and luck can be considered external to the individual.

Another aspect in relation to the analysis of behaviour is the stable-unstable dimension. Weiner argued that both ability and task difficulty can be regarded as relatively stable. Effort and luck are rather unstable. Weiner claims that changes in the expectancy of success following an outcome are influenced by the perceived stability of the cause of the event (Weiner, 1985, p. 559).

The locus of causes (internal or external) also influences the learner's affects and emotions. The controllability of one's academic outcome can raise one's motivation and self-regulation to learn. On the other hand, the perception of little control can affect expectations, motivational emotions and "self regulation" negatively (Schunk, 2008).

Pintrich and Schunk (1996) summarized the rather complicated process of Weiner's attributional model (1984) in a more comprehensible manner (Figure 2. 1.).

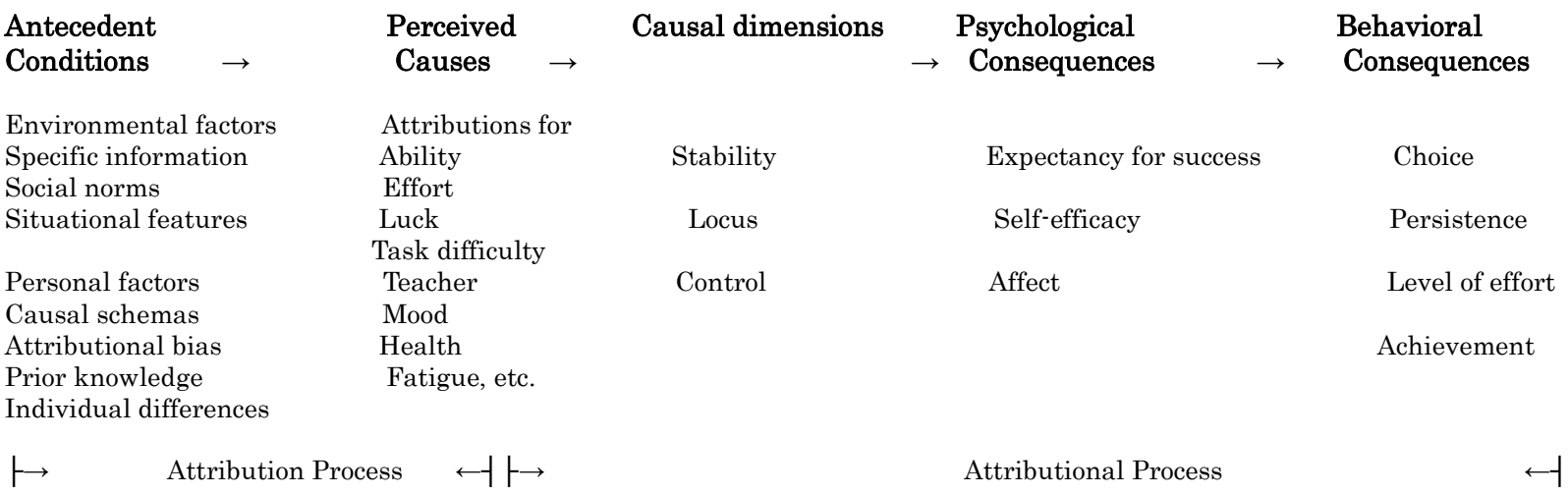


Fig. 2.1. Overview of the general attributional model
Material drawn from Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 110)

In the first column of Figure 2.1., there are two general types of antecedent conditions: environmental factors and personal factors. These two factors influence perceived causes. The process from "antecedent conditions" to "perceived causes" is called the *attribution process*. Environmental factors include specific information, social norms and situational features. Personal factors include various schemas, prior beliefs students have, attributional bias which leads to incorrect attributions, and individual differences. Environmental factors and personal factors influence the actual attribution students will make. The consequences of attributions for students' motivation, affect and behaviour are called the *attributional process*. Students may attribute their failure to low aptitude, bad luck, lack of effort, or the extreme difficulty of tests.

In Weiner's attributional model, attributions are generally categorized along three dimensions: stability, locus (internal or external), and control (controllable or uncontrollable). These three dimensions influence student's expectancy of success, self-efficacy beliefs, and affects or emotions. These psychological consequences then lead to actual behavioural consequences.

In the case of a typical student, Taro, in the present study, the following attributional process can be assumed. Taro, who has repeatedly failed to learn English at his high school day over the past six years, assumed that he would be unsuccessful this time in the university class (attribution bias as a personal factor). He did not know how to prepare for the test, but made an effort to review

the text (specific information about his effort). He was given a very low score in his class test by the teacher with the comment, “you should have prepared for the test”. The teacher did not have information that he “made” some effort (specific information of the observer about his effort).

Taro gained information about the average score of the class, which was much higher than his own (social norms). Combining this information, Taro then came to attribute his unsuccessful results to his poor academic skills and poor intelligence, in general. His categorization of a low ability is that it is stable, assuming that he will remain at the same level of proficiency in the future. His ability is internal and uncontrollable, because he did not know how to cope with failure. This stability and uncontrollable feature then generates a low expectancy for success, as well as low self-efficacy. He felt that learning English was a helpless situation.

The Taro explanation is an example, but a similar case is reported in the case study (see Chapter 5). Understanding the process of student attribution is very meaningful to the present study. It suggests that specific instruction and learner autonomy support to change the student’s situation of learned helplessness should be developed.

Learned helplessness is investigated in relation to a student’s attribution by Petri (1990). Learned helplessness is closely related to stability and control.

Students become helpless when they believe they have no control over what happens to them (e.g., low academic scores). If attribution is a result of a specific circumstance (e.g., I don't do well in English), the student is likely to only demonstrate helplessness in those specific situations. However, if the uncontrollability leads to a global attribution (e.g., low scores in an English test leading to the attribution that he or she is totally incompetent), many future behaviours will be affected by it. In addition, if students attribute their failure to stable factors, the time course of helplessness tends to be extended, while attributions to instability causes will be more transient.

Students who have learned helplessness tend to make personal, global, and stable attributions concerning their lack of control over their academic failures. Attribution of this type can lead to self-blame, lowered self-esteem, and chronic depression (Petri, p.315). For the present study, the implication of Petri's investigation suggests the important role of teachers as learner autonomy supporters of these students. Teachers are expected to determine the tendency of helplessness in the students before they are captured by chronic depression. They should then offer appropriate attributional feedback and help them regain controllability of their own academic performance and self-efficacy.

In this section, I examined how expectancy and attribution work on student's future behaviours in learning. It is interesting to note that both expectancy-value theory and attribution theory suggest that expectancy for success, self-perception

of competence, and self-efficacy play an important role in successful learning behaviour and motivation.

In the following sections, two motivational theories in the field of educational psychology, self-regulated learning (SRL) and self-determination theory (SDT), are closely examined. Two primary reasons led to the decision to focus on these theories. The first is that both theories deal with several major motivational factors and the second is that both theories treat motivation as a process.

The importance of motivation as a part of the educational process should be kept in researchers' minds. In an educational setting, teachers often teach students who are not as motivated as they could be. As I stated in the introduction, the students in the present study have limited levels of motivation. Thus, understanding motivation as a process is a necessary prerequisite for the present study. In developing an instructional model, a starting point should be designed for insufficiently motivated students.

2.2. Self-regulated learning (SRL)

Many self-regulation theorists view learning as a process. Among them, Zimmerman (1998) postulates an academic learning cycle with three major phases: forethought, performance or volitional control, and self-reflection. The forethought phase involves the setting of the stage for learning. Forethought

process types include goal setting, reflection on previous learning, self-efficacy beliefs, strategic planning, and raising intrinsic interest. The performance or volitional control phases involve the actual learning efforts and performance and can be further divided into three subgroups: attention focusing, self-instruction and self-monitoring. Of the three, self-monitoring is closely related to students' self-efficacy. The third self-regulatory phase, self-reflection, involves activities after learning efforts. The four types of self-reflection processes are self-evaluation, attribution, self-reaction and adaptively. Self-reflection leads to, and influences the forethought phase, and completes the self-regulatory cycle.

This study examines four motivation-related factors in the concept of SRL: goals, interest, rewards, and self-efficacy. In Section 2.2.5., I examine the characteristics of university students in Japan in terms of their capacity for SRL and suggest several important self-regulatory strategies for the present study.

2.2.1. The role of goals in self-regulated learning

2.2.1.a. Goal orientations and self-regulated learning

Goal orientation concerns the purposes behind engaging in achievement behaviour, rather than specific target setting or how individuals set their goals. For example, goal orientation theory is concerned with why students want to study hard to achieve good grades and how they approach the tasks. Goal

orientation focuses on the individual's "orientations" to the task at hand, more specifically, their general purpose for achievement (Pintrich, Conley, & Kempler, 2003). Although there are variations in labels, researchers generally agree that there are two distinctive orientations that individuals have, mastery goals and performance goals (Pintrich & Schunk 1996), also categorized as learning goals and performance goals (Covington, 2000). I have adopted the mastery and performance labels, since they are most commonly applied in achievement goal research.

Mastery goals

Mastery goals focus on an individual's desire to increase his or her level of competency, understanding and appreciation for what is being learned (Covington, 2000). For example, if students want to learn to master a task or try to gain an understanding or insight related to that task, they learn according to a mastery goal orientation. Mastery oriented students are willing to develop new skills, understand their work, improve their level of competence and achieve a sense of mastery based on a self-referenced standard (Ames, 1992).

Performance goals

In contrast to mastery orientation, a performance goal orientation focuses on relative ability and how that ability will be judged by others. For example, if a student wants to learn for the purpose of achieving the highest grade in the class, that student learns based upon a performance goal orientation. The public

recognition that one has achieved better than others or performed in a manner superior to others is critical (Ames, 1992). These individual's desire or sense of success is based on their perception of their ability to perform relative to others and, often, as perceived by others, so that the learning itself is only a way to earn that success.

In general, achievement goal research has shown that mastery goal orientation is linked to positive achievement activities. In contrast to performance goals, mastery goals lead to more cognitive engagement, especially involving the use of deeper processing strategies and self-regulated learning strategies (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996).

Pintrich and De Groot (1990) examined relationships between motivational orientation, self-regulated learning, and classroom academic performance among 173 junior high school students. A self-reported measure of each student's intrinsic value was asked in the form of the question "Why am I doing this task?" Performance data were obtained from work on classroom assignments. Their results showed that intrinsic value (mastery goals orientation) is very strongly related to the use of cognitive strategies and self-regulation. They found that mastery goal-oriented students were more cognitively engaged in trying to learn and comprehend the material. In addition, these students were more likely to be self-regulated and to report that they persisted in their academic work. However, the investigators' results did not reveal any direct link between intrinsic value

and student academic performance. They suggested that it is important for teachers to socialize students' intrinsic value for school work, not because it will lead to higher grades, but because it may lead to more cognitive engagement in the day-to-day work of the classroom.

Ames (1992) suggests that mastery goals increase the amount and quality of the time students are actually engaged in learning. She found that mastery goal-oriented students have reported both valuing and using those learning strategies related to attending, processing, self-monitoring, and deep processing of verbal information. Conversely, she found that a performance goal orientation was associated with a pattern of motivation that includes an avoidance of challenging tasks: negative affect following failure, accompanied by self-judgment that one lacks ability, and the use of superficial or short-term learning strategies, such as memorizing and rehearsing.

As previous research has revealed, it is noteworthy that students with mastery goals are interested in acquiring new skills and improving their knowledge. Thus, mastery goals are assumed to have strong positive effects on motivation. On the other hand, students with performance goals are interested in obtaining positive evaluations of their ability and avoiding negative evaluations. Consequently, performance goals are assumed to lead students to develop the desire to prove their ability. However, recent research finds that, in real classroom situations, there is the possibility of one student having more than one goal.

Multiple goals

Wentzel (1999) pointed out that students may have social goals, in addition to other goals, in trying to conduct schoolwork. These social goals include establishing good relationships with teachers, feeling appreciated by parents, and developing cooperative interactions with other students. Among other social and task-related models, the hierarchical nature of goals are emphasized in her study. Goal hierarchies develop over time as individuals are taught to prioritize goals and associate them with each other in a causal fashion (p. 81). For example, students initially might come to school merely because they want to form close relationships with other students (social goals). Over time, this goal might become linked to more specific goals, such as establishing good relationships with certain students or teachers (social goals), which might be accomplished by even more specific goals, such as behaving appropriately, paying attention, or completing assignments (task-related goals). Similarly, children with the desire to demonstrate competence might first achieve subordinate goals, such as learning subject matter, outperforming others or supporting group efforts. Wentzel only indicated the hierarchical pattern itself. Nevertheless, it is possible that during this hierarchical process, students who originally only have social goals or performance goals, ultimately develop an interest in learning itself and, hence, become more mastery -oriented learners.

Mastery and performance goals are considered conflicting and contradictory.

Recent studies have demonstrated that these two goals are relatively complementary (Valle, Cabanach, Núnêz, González-Pienda, Rodríguez, & Piñeiro, 2003). For example, one student may have a desire to achieve the best mark in the class (performance goals). To achieve that goal, the student tries to study a subject in more depth. In that process, the student starts to have more interest in the subject itself (mastery goals).

As was previously mentioned, it is more realistic to believe that students have multiple goals, for example, combinations like mastery plus performance and other goals such as social goals. In addition, it may not always be the case that one goal is valued more than another. A given student truly may want to do well, grade-wise, to the same degree that he or she wants to learn the material and/or please his or her parents. In addition, one has to remember that one goal can transform into a different goal. Therefore, as Valle et al. (2003) mentioned, the ability to co-ordinate these multiple goals can become important for students to achieve academic success. Irrespective of the types of goals, having clear and personally relevant goals, and gaining the ability to co-ordinate these goals, seems to be the basis for raising one's motivation.

2.2.1.b. Who, why, and what on goal setting issues

Many researchers consider goal setting to be greatly related to motivation. When developing an instructional model for the present research, it is useful to ask

these three questions: Who should set goals, why should goals be set, and what kind of goals should be set?

Firstly, who should set goals? If a student can set an appropriate goal, he or she will gain a sense of autonomy. If the student can achieve his or her self-set goal, then it is assumed that the student will gain a sense of achievement or self-efficacy. It has been pointed out by Zimmerman (2008) that we are likely to try to reach goals that we have set for ourselves, rather than ones set by others. That is to say, if the goal is self-set, then it is more effective in guiding self-regulation than a goal set by someone else. However, this is based on the assumption that a student has competence or is motivated to set his or her own goals. Goal choice will be influenced by previous performance and actual ability or skill level (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). There are many students who are not able to analyze their achievement level or performance, making it difficult for them to set proper goals. When this is the case, it is desirable for others, such as teachers or advisers, to help students set goals.

Secondly, why should goals be set? With appropriate and achievable goals, students are guided towards successful learning without being confused. Goals play an important role in keeping students on the right track. In addition, goals encourage students to continue their work, even when they have problems engaging. Goals will affect students' motivation when students reflect on what has been achieved. For these reasons, goal setting and on-going monitoring

should be incorporated in an instructional model. From the SRL perspective, Zimmerman (2008) mentions four motivational influences of goals. First, they motivate students' choice of, and attention towards, goal-relevant tasks and away from goal-irrelevant tasks. For example, after setting the goal to become a scientist, a student may choose to read exclusively on this topic. Second, goals motivate learners to make efforts to achieve them. In this way, a student may work diligently to enter a particular university because that is his or her clearly established goal. Third, goals sustain one's persistence in pursuing them. Fourth, goals influence students' learning by generating greater self-satisfaction and less defensiveness. Students who meet their goals are more likely to have increased satisfaction and positive feelings about themselves.

Thirdly, what kind of goals should students set? There are many different types of goals, such as future goals, immediate goals, hierarchical goals, short-term goals and long-term goals (Zimmerman, 2008). The types of goals students should set depend on the levels of their motivation or interests. If the students have gained clear future goals and clear motivation to learn towards them, then it will be easy to set more immediate goals. For the purpose of developing an instructional model in the present study, it is desirable for students to have more immediate and clear goals, assuming their low level of interest or motivation towards their learning.

As for the ideal goals for students, Locke and Lathman (1990) suggest four

principles based on their theory of goal setting. First, goals should be clear and specific. This is more beneficial than setting vague goals or simply encouraging students to do their best. Second, goals should be challenging and difficult, but attainable. Goals that are too easy decrease a students' motivation to perform. Difficult, but attainable, goals lead to greater effort and better performance, which then leads to greater self-satisfaction. Third, goals should be both proximal and distal for students. It is helpful for students to have a series of specific sub-goals that lead to larger distal goals. For example, so that students finish a project on time, it would be helpful for them to divide the project into several tasks and set due dates for each project. Fourth, teachers should provide feedback that increases students' self-efficacy in obtaining the goal. Even for highly motivated students, it is sometimes difficult to continue working towards goal attainment. External support, such as positive feedback, is important in these situations.

Considering the importance of goal setting in relation to students' motivation, the following three points should be considered when an instructional model of the present study is developed:

1. Self-set goals are helpful for raising a student's sense of autonomy and self-efficacy, but external support should be provided according to the level of the student's motivation.
2. Once goals are set, on-going monitoring of progress by the student should be encouraged.

3. The type of goal depends on the student's level of motivation and interest. An insufficiently motivated student should set clear, immediate, and specific goals.

2.2.2. The role of interest in self-regulated learning

Along with goals, interest has been identified as an important motivational variable. In self-regulated learning, interest is considered one of the mediating variables, because as individual interest develops in an activity, self-regulation also develops as an integral aspect of the performance (Ainley & Patrick, 2006). However, in classroom settings, many teachers encounter students with no interest in their work, at first. It would be useful to examine the role of student interest in the concept of self-regulated learning, so that we can uncover when and how students develop interest in their academic tasks. In this section, two different types of interest, situational and individual, are defined. This is followed by a discussion of the developmental process of student interest. In addition, the interest-related issues of rewards and competing interests are discussed.

2.2.2.a. Situational interest and individual interest

In understanding interest as a developmental variable, it is useful to examine recent research that considers interest from two different perspectives. One is interest from the perspective of the situation, or situational interest, and the

other is considered from the perspective of the individual person, or individual interest (Ainley & Patrick, 2006). In recent research, it is believed that both types of interest play essential roles in the process of self-regulated learning.

Situational interest is generated by specific environmental stimuli (Ainley, Hidi, & Berndorff, 2002). Through situational interest, people focus attention or react affectively. This type of interest can be initiated by appropriate teaching in the classroom environment. Situational interest represents an immediate affective reaction that may or may not last (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000). For example, students' interest may be triggered by a teacher showing a picture of an animal, but students may stop thinking about the animal once the class has ended. On the other hand, a person who randomly picks up a book in a doctor's waiting room may become interested in the content. He or she may later search for another book in order to learn more about the subject.

Situational interest plays an important role in learning, especially when students have little or no pre-existing interest in the academic activity or content area (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000). Teachers can raise motivation and facilitate learning by appropriately utilizing situational interest. In this sense, external support may be required to promote situational interest in self-regulated learning.

Individual interest is described as a predisposition to certain objects, events, and

activities (Ainley et al., 2002). It is considered a relatively stable motivational orientation, compared to situational interest. Individual interest develops over time and tends to be long-lasting. This type of interest has an association with increased knowledge, value, and positive feelings. In addition, it should be noted that individual interest is viewed as a pre-condition of intrinsic motivation, although many researchers use interest and intrinsic motivation interchangeably (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000).

2.2.2.b. Developmental nature of situational and individual interest

In interest research, it has been recognized that a high level of interest in activities and tasks may lead students to use more self-regulatory strategies (Hidi and Ainley, 2008). For the purpose of the present study, which involves developing an instructional model, especially for unmotivated, uninterested students, it is essential to understand the developmental nature of interest. For these students, it is important that the starting point of an instructional model be based on the presupposition that instructors cannot anticipate students' pre-existing interest in tasks and activities. Hidi and Renninger (2000) argued that a student's interest may be triggered by external factors, such as a teacher's lecture. This interest may lead to continued and persistent activity that becomes self-initiated. As that situational interest proceeds, by continuous exposure to, and reengagement with, content, it is no longer imposed on the students, but becomes more individual and autonomous. At this stage, a student's motivation

can be considered intrinsic. Hidi and Renninger (2000) characterized this stage as an affective-cognitive synthesis, which may be sustained over longer time periods and combine positive affective qualities. In this stage, students tend to focus attention and perceive the value or importance of the academic tasks. Thus, situational interest is maintained and can contribute to the development of individual interest and intrinsic motivation. This implies that creating a positive environment that stimulates situational interest is effective in leading students towards successful learning.

Based on the conceptualizations and developmental nature of situational and individual interest, Hidi and Renninger (2006) propose a four-phase model of interest development. It is useful to examine this model to understand how situational interest develops into individual interest and to understand the link between interest and self-regulation. Their four-phase model is summarized as follows:

Phase 1: Triggered Situational Interest

In this phase, situational interest can be triggered by environmental features, such as surprising information, character identification in the text, or personal relevance. Triggered interest is typically, but not exclusively, externally supported. The learning environments assumed to trigger situational interest may include group work, puzzles, and computer activities. Triggered situational interest may be a precursor to the predisposition to reengage particular content

over time.

Phase 2: Maintained Situational Interest

In this phase, situational interest is maintained. Subsequent to a triggered interest, this phase involves focused attention and persistence over an extended episode in time or reoccurrence. Situational interest is sustained through the relevance of tasks and personal involvement. A maintained situational interest is typically, but not exclusively, externally supported. Instructional conditions or learning environments may include meaningful and personally involving activities, such as project-based learning, cooperative group work, and one-to-one tutoring. A maintained situational interest may or may not be a precursor to the development of a predisposition to reengage particular content over time.

Phase 3: Emerging Individual Interest

In this phase, individual interest emerges. Emerging interest is characterized by positive feelings, stored knowledge, and stored value. Students seek repeated reengagement with particular content over time. Students in this phase begin to generate their own questions, challenge more difficult tasks, redefine and exceed their task demands in their work, and anticipate subsequent steps in processing work with content. An emerging individual interest is typically, but not exclusively, self-generated. An emerging individual interest requires a degree of external support, in the form of role models. Students may need encouragement from peers or experts to persevere when confronted with a difficulty.

Phase 4: Well-developed individual interest

In this phase, students develop individual interest with a relatively enduring predisposition to reengage with particular content over time. In addition to the features described in Phase 3, students in Phase 4 sustain long-term constructive and creative endeavors and generate more types and deeper levels of strategies for work with tasks. Students consider both the context and the content of a task in the process of problem solving or passage comprehension. Well-developed individual interest promotes self-regulation and is typically, but not exclusively, self-generated. Students in this phase will persevere to work, or address a question, even in the face of frustration. Students with well developed individual interests may also benefit from external support, such as role models or experts in the field. The instructional conditions of the learning environment may include interactions and challenges that lead to knowledge building.

Hidi and Renninger (2006) claim that external support may be required during all four phases, although the types of support may change as student interest develops. They propose that external support contextualized in content is particularly critical in the early phases of interest development. Educators can help students feel positive about their emerging abilities in many ways, such as offering choices of tasks, building a sense of competence, promoting a sense of autonomy, and offering positive affective responses. It is also important to note that external support with social factors is effective in promoting both situational

and individual interest. A teacher might be able to utilize his or her control of social factors to increase a student's interest. These social factors may include cooperative learning, such as group work, pair work, interviewing, and small group projects. Teaching other students and sharing knowledge are also effective in promoting a sense of empowerment and confidence (Hidi and Harackiewicz, 2000). It is important, especially for students with limited competence of the content, to have a secure environment where they feel they can make mistakes or ask questions without feeling embarrassed. For example, even though there may be no questions raised by the students when a teacher checks for understanding, students may start asking questions of each other and confirming what they have learned when they are allowed to talk to each other in the class. These self-generated questions may lead to a deeper understanding and stored knowledge of the content.

Hidi and Renninger (2006) propose that Phase 1, Triggered Situational Interest, may develop into Phase 2, Maintained Situational Interest. However, even if situational interest is not triggered, as the knowledge accumulates enough to reach the point that students understand the content clearly, or can use the acquired skills to perform specific tasks, students may suddenly jump to Phase 3, Emerging Individual Interest. It is not unusual for students to comment that, at first, they did not have any interest at all, but that they continued studying because they were forced to, and as they began to understand the content more, they began to enjoy it.

2.2.3. The role of rewards in self-regulated learning

The Issue of rewards is particularly important in the present study because it is hypothesized to influence the student motivation process. The terms “rewards” and “positive reinforcement” are sometimes used interchangeably and become confused (Cameron & Pierce, 2002), so it is useful to specifically define them. Positive reinforcement involves procedures that increase or strengthen certain behaviours. A behaviour is likely to be repeated if certain kinds of consequences follow. These consequences are seen by learners as being rewarding or satisfying. When rewards are shown to strengthen behaviours, they are equated with positive reinforcement (Cameron & Pierce, 2002). Therefore, the difference between “rewards” and “positive reinforcement” is that rewards do not necessarily lead to better performance, whereas ‘positive reinforcement’ always does.

When people act based upon intrinsic motivation, they do so because they find the activity itself interesting or enjoyable. In such a situation, extrinsic rewards for the activity that people have already enjoyed are considered to provide supplementary justification for their acts. Traditional theories have tended to assume that when people who are already motivated receive extrinsic rewards, they lose their justification for, and motivation to, work on a task (Cameron & Pierce, 2002). When extrinsic rewards are absent, or too weak, people attribute

their actions to their own desires and abilities (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Previous research on rewards and intrinsic motivation has primarily illustrated that rewards are seen as effective in getting people to start an action, however, rewards for an activity people already enjoy have been found to have a detrimental effect on intrinsic motivation (e.g., Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). This theoretical point of view is based on the Cognitive Evaluation Theory, begun by Deci in 1971. This theory is the basis of self-determination theory and is analyzed in the next section. In section 2.3.8., I will present a critical evaluation of the idea that rewards are detrimental. For now, however, I need to look at the role of rewards in self-regulated learning.

Research into self-regulated learning generally supports the positive effects of rewards on motivation as a whole, in contrast to the Cognitive Evaluation Theory, which generally proposes that there are negative effects of external rewards on intrinsic motivation (Cameron & Pierce, 2002). One of the reasons for this disagreement is the difference in the nature of target activities. While most of the experiments in Cognitive Evaluation Theory are conducted in non-educational laboratory settings, for example, puzzle-solving tasks, self-regulated learning uses mostly educational settings. This is a significant difference, because educational settings have their own uniqueness.

In school settings, there is a positive social value in knowing that learning is beneficial or valuable. In addition, the tasks themselves have the possibility of

raising students' self-concepts, self-evaluation and perceptions of self-realization. For example, if students work hard and reach a stage of perfect understanding of a subject, they may have a sense of achievement. They may also feel that they are doing something very meaningful for their academic growth. However, it is usually difficult to have a similar perception of themselves from just solving a puzzle in a laboratory.

Self-regulated learning is based on the idea that behaviours are regulated by the self-concept. This self-concept is the basis of the social cognitive theory offered by Bandura (1986). The emphasis of this theory is on self-evaluative mechanisms, where the perception of self plays an important role in behaviour. When students evaluate their own progress in mathematics, they have a sense of achievement and perceive a personal efficacy in their performance. This positive evaluation, or perception of self, leads to an increase in self-motivation and self-directedness. As such, their future behaviour becomes more self-regulated. Self-evaluation of one's own performance thus becomes a source of the personal regulation of behaviour.

The important point here is that social cognitive theory views external rewards as essential aspects in the process of the development of self-regulation, because the theory does not completely accept the idea of innate sources of motivation. Bandura (1986) explains this point using an example of a pianist. Children are not born with an intrinsic motivation to play the piano. They need to acquire

some proficiency on the piano to fully enjoy playing it. Until they become proficient enough to enjoy playing the piano, external rewards are necessary.

This explanation is also applicable to educational settings. Until students see their improvement and build a sense of achievement, appropriate external rewards, such as verbal encouragements or incentives, are required. When teachers face the reality that students have limited intrinsic motivation in accomplishing their immediate tasks, they can give students external rewards such as verbal praise, extra points, grades, awards, special rights or special activities, to encourage students to do the tasks.

Through repeated rewards and the accumulated experience of tasks, students gradually build a competence that leads to self-awareness of efficacy or perceptions of competence. This awareness has the possibility to become the powerful source of the next level of behaviour. Since social cognitive theory holds that external rewards are essential to promote one's perception of self-evaluation, the manner in which rewards are exerted should be carefully considered. In social cognitive theory, rewards have a positive effect on motivation when they are given according to the level of achievement and given enough to build up a positive self-concept (competency-contingent rewards).

On the other hand, rewards given without regard to the actual achievement or rewards given for merely doing the task (non-competency-contingent rewards)

are viewed as having a negative effect on motivation, because students cannot build up a perception of competence by merely doing the tasks. Rewards delivered to the students should be closely tied to the quality of their performance on the task or the level of their mastery.

It is important to note that rewards related to the quality of performance or the mastery of tasks do not directly increase students' interest or motivation in such tasks. External rewards are given so that students will raise their level of performance high enough to be able to perceive their own competence. Students gradually develop such a perception of competence in the target subjects through their experience of doing the tasks. Thus, rewards should be repeatedly given during a long-term learning process. Bandura (1986) indicates that self-motivation by the evaluation of one's own performance includes knowledge of how to sequence actions and set one's own challenging standards for performance. Students gradually learn to make positive self-evaluations of performance accomplishment. Once they have got into such a motivational system triggered by external rewards, students are then able to gain personal satisfaction from performance. That satisfaction then increases interest in the target subject and additional motivation for further learning.

In order to find out how and what kind of rewards produce positive or negative effects on intrinsic motivation, Cameron and Pierce (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of 145 independent studies of a reward-motivation relationship.

They investigated the following types of effects:

-the effect of reward on intrinsic motivation when tasks used are of either high or low initial interest.

-the effect of reward type on intrinsic motivation (i.e., whether rewards are verbal or tangible);

-the effect of reward expectancy on intrinsic motivation (i.e., whether rewards are expected -promised and delivered to participants -or unexpected -delivered to participants but not promised);

-the effect of reward contingency on intrinsic motivation (i.e., whether rewards are delivered for participation in an experimental session regardless of what participants do, for engaging in a task, for completing or solving a task);

-the effect of delivering maximum or less than maximum reward (p. 116).

In all of these areas, Cameron and Pierce investigated the effects of rewards on free-choice intrinsic motivation and self-reported task interest. Time spent on the task after the reward was withdrawn or performance on the task during the free-choice period was measured to determine free-choice intrinsic motivation. Self-reported task interest was then assessed by a questionnaire to include participant's interest, enjoyment or satisfaction. Their findings concerning the effects of rewards on free-choice intrinsic motivation are as follows:

a) When the tasks are of low initial interest, rewards increase intrinsic motivation. When the tasks are of high initial interest, rewards decrease motivation. However, this negative effect of rewards on high initial interest

becomes a positive effect on intrinsic motivation, depending on the condition and types of rewards.

b) Verbal rewards are found to increase intrinsic motivation for initially high interest tasks. The effects of tangible rewards also differ by reward expectancy.

c) When tangible rewards are delivered unexpectedly, there is no evidence of a reliable effect. When tangible rewards are delivered expectedly, the effects of the tangible reward differ by reward contingency.

d) When tangible rewards are delivered with no relationship to the task behaviour (task non-contingent), there is no evidence of an effect of a reward on motivation. When people are offered a tangible reward for doing a task, or for doing it well, there is a significant negative effect on motivation. When rewards are offered for meeting or surpassing a score, there is no reliable effect on motivation. However, when rewards are given for exceeding the performance level of others, the result shows a significant positive effect on motivation.

e) When less than the full reward expected is offered, there is a negative effect on motivation. However, a maximum reward indicates no reliable effect on motivation.

Cameron and Pierce found that data concerning the self-reported task interest provides little evidence of negative effects for any type of reward. Negative effects only occurred when the rewards were tangible, expected, and provided simply for doing tasks without regard to any performance standards. The meta-analysis of Cameron and Pierce shows that rewards can be used to produce

either negative, neutral, or positive effects on measures of intrinsic motivation. They conclude with the observation that:

Rewards can be used to increase motivation and performance on tasks that are of low initial interest. On high-interest tasks, positive effects are obtained when participants are verbally praised for their work and when tangible rewards are offered and explicitly tied to performance standards and success (p. 131).

Cameron and Pierce's findings support the use of rewards in educational settings. They show that tangible rewards themselves do not undermine motivation; the negative effect depends on how the rewards are delivered, especially the types of reward contingency. They also suggest that when rewards are strongly tied to level of performance, a significant positive effect is found. This finding agrees with the social cognitive view that one's perception of competence, or performance, plays an important role in promoting motivation.

Based on their findings, Cameron and Pierce suggest the following eight important factors for effective reinforcement. It is useful to examine these factors in developing an instruction model of the present study.

1) Specify the target behaviour

It is important to reward work effectively when target behaviours are clearly defined. A target behaviour should be observable, countable, and important. Parents and teachers often use ambiguous terms to instruct children or students,

but, in fact, many children or students do not understand what needs to be done clearly. For example, teachers often say “Please complete this task by tomorrow.” Teachers must be more precise on what to do. They should say, “Please circle the number of the correct answer to each question and write down the reason why you think that is the answer in the space next to the answer. Then check the answer key and compare it to your answers. Amend your answers if they are wrong using red ink.” The clearer the target behaviour is and more precisely understood, the more the intended behaviour is likely to occur. It is also better to use precise language and say “circle” instead of “identify”, or “write clearly” instead of “demonstrate”.

2) Arrange a favorable situation

It is essential to arrange a situation where target behaviours occur as easily as possible. In educational settings, study rooms can be precisely set up to support study and reduce incompatible behaviours, such as playing games, watching TV, or talking on a mobile phone.

3) Select effective rewards and behavioural consequences

It is important to select appropriate rewards that serve to positively reinforce the target behaviour. Teachers have to consider the preferences, desires or values of the student when rewards are selected. If parents give a child a new book that the parent thinks is interesting as a reward for a reading task, it may not be seen as a reward unless the child also thinks it is interesting. On the contrary, it may

be viewed as a punishment.

4) Set the reinforcement contingency

It is useful to set a realistic reinforcement contingency. Sometimes, the level of target behaviour can be set progressively. For example, the number of pages to read for an assignment might be one each day for the first week, then two days in the second week. In that way, students can clear the standard set by the teacher without much difficulty. In such a setting, students can always be successful and get the reward. Teachers can then lead students' performance from a low level to a higher level.

5) Wait for the target behaviour to occur and then reinforce it

Reinforcement works best when the target behaviour occurs without prompting, cajoling, or telling an individual to do it. The best procedure here is to discuss the reinforcement contingency before it is implemented to ensure that the person can meet the requirements for reinforcement, then wait for the target behaviour to occur and reinforce it. For example, parents may be tempted to tell a child that "Unless you get better than A- on your math exam, you can't go on the ski trip." This kind of remark is highly controlling and works as a pressure on the child. The reward may be accepted as a punishment, which will have a negative effect on motivation and not lead to the positive self-evaluation by the child or a positive perception of performance.

6) Move from continuous to intermittent reinforcement

Continuous reinforcement is necessary to maintain behaviour. Reinforcement should be both certain and immediate. The more closely the target behaviour is followed by the reinforcement, the more likely the reinforcement is to be effective. However, once performance reaches a satisfactory level, it is important to change the schedule from continuous to intermittent reinforcement. A behaviour is maintained at its most positive strength better with intermittent reinforcement than with continuous reinforcement. Intermittent reinforcement avoids the issue of over-rewarding, which does not have a positive effect on motivation.

In educational settings, students who have levels of self-motivation that are strong enough to maintain their performance, eventually become autonomous learners. However, when all sources of reinforcement are withdrawn, even well self-motivated students can decline in performance. In such a situation, self-motivated learners often find a way to reward themselves. For example, they may find a way to have a small success, such as the completion of a task in a previously set time, and then reward themselves with special stamps on their note books. By reducing the amount of reinforcement, teachers can encourage students to be autonomous learners. To have such learners may be the ultimate goal teachers have for learning.

7) Monitor the results of your reward program

A systematic way to monitor the target behaviour is needed to discover whether

the reward procedure is actually effective or not. It can be useful to count the number of target behaviours and then present the change in performance visually on a graph.

8) Be ready to change the reward program

An experimental attitude regarding the use of a specific reward is important to gain the best results of the reward program. However, there is no reason not to change the program when problems or unintended results appear. Careful monitoring will make it possible to determine the cause of the problems or determine the precise side effects of the program.

For the present study, the social cognitive view of rewards in self-regulated learning has important implications. When developing an instruction model to enhance students' motivation in the present study, delivering appropriate rewards in an effective way is found to be essential. Social cognitive theory does not depend on students' innate motivation (intrinsic motivation) at the initial stage of learning. This point strongly supports the idea that the base of an instruction model can be designed for the students who have limited intrinsic motivation.

2.2.4. The role of self-efficacy in self-regulated learning

2.2.4.a. Definition of self-efficacy

Students' self-efficacy is closely related both to their performance in any academic task and their motivation. Self-efficacy is defined as people's judgments of their own capability to learn or perform at designated levels (Bandura, 1997). For example, if a student thinks "I am confident that I can do this particular task as I intended", the student has self-efficacy. Although self-efficacy is similar to self-esteem, there are marked differences. Self-esteem "involves individual's emotional reactions to their accomplishments, such as feeling good or bad about themselves because they can or cannot read a book or ride a bicycle" (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003, p. 121). Self-esteem reflects upon achievements, whereas self-efficacy attempts to predict ability in a certain setting. It is important to know that self-efficacy, not self-esteem, refers to the specific and situational judgments of capabilities and plays an important role in students learning and motivation.

2.2.4.b. The role of self-efficacy in students' engagements in learning

There has been considerable research into the role of perceived self-efficacy in students' self-regulation (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1998; Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy affects students' cognitive, motivational, decisional and affective

determinants. A student's beliefs of self-efficacy influence "how much effort they invest in selected endeavors, how they persevere in the face of difficulties, how resilient they are to adversity, how vulnerable they are to stress and depression, and what types of choices they make at important decisional points that set the course of life paths" (Bandura, 2003, p. 769). Students who feel efficacious tend to participate in activities more readily, work harder, persist longer when they encounter difficulties, and achieve better (Schunk, 2003).

Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2003) demonstrate a model showing how students' self-efficacy relates to students' engagement and learning in terms of the three categories of behavioural engagement, cognitive engagement and motivational engagement. According to their model, these three types of engagements lead to learning and achievement which, in turn, leads to self-efficacy. Thus, this model demonstrates the cyclical nature of self-efficacy and learning. The more students are engaged, the more they learn and achieve better, and eventually, the higher their self-efficacy.

Among the three engagements, behavioural and cognitive engagements are important in understanding students' learning and achievement. The first category of behavioural engagement involves observable behaviour. Teachers can see if the students are engaged in terms of their effort, persistence, and help-seeking. High-efficacy students are more likely to participate in the task positively, try harder and are less likely to give up on the task when they are

confronted with difficulty. Generally, low-efficacy students are less likely to seek help, because they are afraid of being thought of as unable. On the other hand, high-efficacy students are more likely to seek help, because they do not feel threatened by asking for adaptive or instrumental help. The second category of cognitive engagement relates to self-efficacy in terms of deeper processing and metacognitive strategies. High-efficacy students are more likely to be cognitively engaged in their work than low-efficacy students. High-efficacy students also show increased use of deeper processing strategies, such as elaboration and organizational strategies, as well as metacognitive strategies. They are more likely to plan, monitor, and regulate themselves while working on their tasks.

The third category of motivational engagement involves motivational constructs, including personal interest and values. Students' efficacy beliefs and emotions influence each other. Generally, high-efficacy students tend to experience positive emotions, such as pride or happiness in learning. For example, students who achieve good results on their tests have a high level of efficacy and are proud of themselves. This positive feeling may lead to a higher level of interest or value in the particular subject.

On the other hand, students who did not achieve as they expected are more likely to have low-efficacy and negative emotions, such as hopelessness, anxiety, and depression. Low-efficacy students tend to have increased anxiety when they think that the task is important to them. Although they value the task very

highly, they know, at the same time, that they cannot do it well, thus they become anxious.

As mentioned previously, there are three different types of student engagement in which self-efficacy can have either a positive or negative effect. In this study, it is very important for us to know how self-efficacy affects behavioural, cognitive and emotional engagement, to design an instruction model which will minimize any negative effects on each type of engagement. One way in which this can be accomplished is to support low-efficacy students by encouraging help-seeking behaviour. It is important for teachers to create an environment where students can ask any questions they have without feeling that they are inferior. Those students may also need extra support for learning deeper processing strategies, such as elaborating strategies or organizational strategies. It may also be meaningful for those students to learn how to plan their self-study schedule with the help of a teacher. In emotional engagements, low-efficacy students need extra emotional care so as not to fall into the feeling of depression or hopelessness. They may need instruction and guidance on how to attribute any failure properly.

2.2.4.c. Sources of self-efficacy

Considering the important role students' perceived self-efficacy plays, it is important to understand what the sources of self-efficacy are. Four major sources

of self-efficacy are categorized by Bandura (1997): mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion and physiological states.

Mastery experience

The first source of self-efficacy information, mastery experience, affects perceived self-efficacy. Generally, students who perform successfully have raised beliefs of personal efficacy, whereas students who repeatedly fail in their performance have lower beliefs of personal efficacy. However, performance is not the only provider of information on which to judge one's level of capability. Students' judgment of their efficacy depends on other factors, such as "their preconceptions of their capabilities, the perceived difficulty of the tasks, the amount of effort they expend, the amount of external aid they receive, the circumstances under which they perform, the temporal pattern of their successes and failures, and the way these enactive experiences are cognitively organized and reconstructed in memory" (Bandura, 1997, p. 81).

Even if students perform well, they may not feel self-efficacy if they feel that the tasks are too easy for them. Regarding the amount of effort, some people think that effort enhances ability, while others believe effort compensates for limited ability. Even when they perform well, such students may think, "I needed more effort than others because I am not clever". In this case, perceived self-efficacy stays low, regardless of the amount of effort they made. On a more positive note, when students are successful in a performance with minimal effort, which others

found difficult, they may feel that they have a higher ability than others and are therefore likely to perceive higher levels of self-efficacy. On the other hand, when students try hard and fail at a task which is known to be difficult, they may feel they have a limited capability and thus perceive lower efficacy. When students try hard and fail at the task which is known to be easy, the damage to the self-efficacy is considerable.

The existence of external aids also contributes to the level of perceived self-efficacy. Successful students with a lot of external aids may attribute their success to the external aids rather than their ability, thus they are more likely to have low-efficacy. Students' perceived self-efficacy belief is also determined by the memories of their temporal successes and failures and the circumstances under which they occurred. Memory is not a reproduction of the past, but the reconstruction of past experiences. The ability to integrate the past experience in a constructive way is the key to raising students' perceived efficacy.

Vicarious experience

Vicarious experience is an experience which individuals have through the observation of others performing the tasks. When students answer eight questions out of ten correct, they do not know how well they performed without knowing how others have performed. The performance information gained by comparing themselves to others can affect their perceived efficacy, either in a positive or a negative way. If they know that they performed better than others,

their perceived efficacy is raised.

Observation of others' performances changes students' behaviour involving predictability and controllability. Through the observation of others that they consider similar to themselves, individuals can predict their capabilities of coping with the tasks. When students see others performing well, they may believe that if other students can do it, they too will be able to perform well if they follow the same learning pattern. However, if the students see other students as very different from themselves, their self-efficacy beliefs are likely to be less influenced. In terms of controllability, students are able to gain information that they too can do well through the observation of others coping with difficult tasks. The model demonstrates that they are capable of handling threats in learning and that information is conveyed to the students.

Social persuasion

Social persuasion is a powerful source of perceived efficacy, especially when students face difficulty in learning. Social persuasion involves verbal persuasion and evaluative feedback. When significant others express positive comments on students' capabilities, this is likely to raise their self-efficacy if the comments are perceived as reliable and realistic. For example, when students receive positive verbal persuasion (e.g., "I know you can do it because…") from their teacher or a parent, they are more likely to promote their perceived self-efficacy.

Schunk and Rice (1991) investigated the role of feedback in students' learning. In their research, three groups of students were tested. Students in the first group were given a product goal of answering questions. Students in the second group were given a process goal of learning to use the strategy. In the third group, students were given a process goal plus progress feedback on how well they were learning the strategy. Among these three groups, students in the third group, who were given the "process goal-plus-feedback", demonstrated higher self-efficacy and comprehension than learners in the "process and product goal" conditions. Students benefited from feedback on their progress for successful learning. This translates into everyday practice and shows that when students get evaluative feedback (e.g., "you are doing much better than last time") from their teacher, they are more likely to promote their perceived self-efficacy.

Physiological and affective states

Bandura (1997) claims that physiological and affective states, such as stress, anxiety, tension, depression and despondency, can lower efficacy beliefs. When students perceived their efficacy as lowered, their motivation and performance in learning activities were weakened, leading to an even deeper despondency. Specific physiological states or affective states in addition to the students' general mood can have an impact on the evaluative judgments of students' capabilities.

Bandura's sources of self-efficacy highlight several important points in designing

teaching strategies. To promote students' mastery experience, it is important for instructors to enable students to experience success, even if it is small. At the same time, it is essential to guide them to perceive that their success should be attributed to their effort and that their success is meaningful. Proper guidance should be made, especially when students try hard and did not succeed. This kind of encouragement can be made individually in the form of either written feedback for their small tests or verbal persuasion in the class or conference after the class.

Regarding vicarious experience, it is meaningful for students to know of other classmates' performance as a basis on which to judge their own results. For example, announcing the average grade on the class test and the highest grade in the class may be meaningful. Instructors can also introduce cases of previous successful students and explain how they studied and performed. Positive social persuasion is important, but instructors must be careful not to give negative persuasion. Instructors have to remember that giving excessive pressure, sarcastic remarks, or comments revealing instructors' disappointment, frustration, or anger of the unsuccessful performance will only lead to a negative outcome.

Regarding physiological and affective states, it is important to create a stress-free and anxiety-free learning environment. When considering the nature of language classes particularly, they should be designed in a way that ensures

that students enjoy communicating with other students.

2.2.4.d. Developing nature of self-efficacy

In the present study, self-efficacy is viewed as a changeable and promotable concept. The teaching program is designed assuming that students have a low level of self-efficacy at the beginning in the same way that students are assumed to have a low level of motivation. Bandura (1997) suggested that students often develop a sense of competence, or efficacy, towards an activity to start with. From this self-belief, they develop both interest and value.

Wigfield (1994) suggested that self-efficacy has a developmental perspective, claiming that self-efficacy and interest, or value beliefs, are correlated and students develop their interest in the value they place on the activity as they excel at that activity. Most of the subjects in the present study have problems in learning English. They have experienced repeated failures in learning English over the past six years of their high school education. They are considered to have developed a relatively low level of self-efficacy towards their learning during this period. Thus, the key factor in promoting their learning is changing these students' level of self-efficacy.

2.2.4.e. The role of self-observation in perceived self-efficacy

If mastery experience is a source of self-efficacy, self-observation or self-monitoring is a useful way of obtaining mastery experience. Self-observation is helpful when it focuses on the specific conditions under which learning occurs (Schunk, 2001). Keeping records such as time spent, time started, place, number of questions solved, number of questions correctly answered, test scores, difficulty of the task, and the amount of help required, is beneficial for students to precisely evaluate their learning. Students who observe their performances are able to compare their attainments with their goal, with other students' performance, and thus, determine their progress. This evaluation of acceptable progress "leads to the continued use of effective strategies, motivation for improvement, and positive achievement beliefs" (Schunk, 1998, pp. 141−142).

Acquiring self-observation techniques has an additional benefit for students' self-regulated learning. Schunk (1998) mentioned that teaching students a self-monitoring procedure allows students to work independently of teacher direction. Schunk also added that self-monitoring procedures are not performed automatically. Instructors may need to teach students how to observe themselves and prepare for effective self-observation.

2.2.5. Characteristics of college students worldwide and in Japan and effective strategy instruction for self-regulated learning

2.2.5.a. Characteristics of college students

In order to develop effective teaching strategies for the present study, it is important to examine the characteristics of college students and explore the variety of ways of promoting students' self-regulated learning. One of the major characteristics of college students, as compared with younger students, is their enhanced capability for metacognition. Since older students have experienced more in terms of language and concepts, it is easier for them to understand and handle various discussions of cognition and metacognition (Hofer, Shirley & Pintrich, 1998).

Hofer et al. admits that there are differences in the level of aptitude, knowledge and skills in learning among college students, but it is still meaningful for many college students to acquire effective strategies for self-regulated learning. They emphasize that direct strategy instruction is effective for them. This is true for the Japanese students in the present study. It may be possible to assume that there is room left for students of the present study, who repeatedly failed to study English for the past six years of their high school period, to learn how to learn effectively in a self-regulated way.

2.2.5.b. Learning strategies for self-regulated learning

In order to understand the effective strategies for self-regulated learning, the two general domains of cognitive learning strategies and metacognitive and self-regulatory strategies are presented by Hofer et al. (1998).

Cognitive learning strategies

The Hofer et al. (1998) strategies include the three categories of rehearsal, elaboration and deeper processing. Rehearsal involves skills such as reciting items to be learned, saying words aloud as one reads, and highlighting or underlining text. Elaboration involves skills such as paraphrasing or summarizing the material to be learned, creating analogies, and active note taking, which enables recognizing and connecting ideas. The deeper processing strategy involves such skills as selecting the main idea from texts, outlining the text or material to be learned, sketching a network or map of the important ideas and identifying the prose or expository structures of texts.

Metacognitive and self-regulatory strategies

These strategies include the further three categories of planning, monitoring and regulation. Planning strategies involve such skills as setting goals for studying, skimming a text before reading it in detail, generating questions before reading a text, and doing a task analysis of the problem. Monitoring strategies involve skills such as monitoring attention while reading a text or listening to a lecture,

self-testing to check for understanding, monitoring comprehension of a lecture, taking time to reflect on one's own learning, writing journal or study logs, and test taking strategies (monitoring speed and adjusting to time available). Regulation strategies involve skills such as rereading a portion of the text to understand it better, slowing the pace of their reading when confronted with more difficult or less familiar text, test-taking strategies (skipping questions, and returning to them later), managing study materials, time, the environment, and seeking help when necessary.

Similarly, Corno (2008) postulates three categories of study techniques: rehearse, organize, and extend. Compared to the strategies of Hofer et al., several other strategies are involved in Corno's third category, "extend". Long-term memory is particularly active in this category and skills include forming an image, creating a mnemonic, paraphrasing, exemplifying, analogizing, comparing, criticizing, predicting, inferring, and considering other perspectives.

From an operant view of self-regulation, Belfiore and Hornyak (1998) emphasize the importance of developing a system of self-observation and making it routine. They define this system as an academic related routine. These routines are the skills necessary for academic achievement that are not directly related to specific subjects in curriculum areas. When students want to take notes, the skills required may include gathering materials, locating a quiet area, copying notes on an outline template, and comparing key points copied with original notes. These

kinds of related skills provide students with the effective means of self-management displayed on a self-recording sheet ready to be checked.

Among the many strategies suggested previously, some of the learning strategies are highly relevant and can be incorporated into the present study. Most of the cognitive strategies suggested by Hofer et al. are useful as general study skills that students can apply in their learning depending on their situation. It may be meaningful to introduce them to the class, but instructors should leave some freedom for students to apply them, considering the difference in learning styles of individual students. The instruction model of the present study will focus on "metacognitive and self-regulatory strategies". For example, setting goals is indispensable for self-regulated learning.

General goals, long term goals and short term goals are considered meaningful. Such goals may be for life, for the university period, for this semester, the next exam or today. Another important strategy is the planning and monitoring of their learning. Students' pre-set goals should be realized by planning learning details and putting them in their daily study schedule. Learning details should be recorded in a visible way, for example, journals, portfolios or study logs, so that students are able to check and monitor their actual learning results and performance. Students should be encouraged to write comments when they reflect on their own learning of the day or their progress in a specific learning task. These planning and monitoring strategies are closely connected to

"regulation strategies," because by writing their study plans and keeping a record of their learning, students will experience management of time, study materials and study environment. The series of these strategies includes goal setting, planning learning details, making a schedule, monitoring and recording actual learning results and performance. Evaluating their learning and progress should be conducted in a routine systematic way.

This academic routine will effectively regulate students learning and provide strong assistance to avoid procrastination, because focusing on details enhances persistence in learning tasks (Lens & Vansteenkiste, 2008). Procrastination generally occurs when students do not know why they have to do it, how they do it, what they are doing, which part they have to start with, which part they should spend more time on, when they do it and whether they can do it. Lens & Vansteenkiste claimed that procrastination is related to both the lack of a broad action perspective on behaviours and a lack of specific or low action identification levels. Thus, both long term goal setting (e.g., to become a teacher) and procedural details of the ongoing action (e.g., when, what, how, how much and where to study) are necessary for self-regulated learning. Instructors can support students in making these academic strategies as routines in the classroom teaching period.

Instructors' ongoing support in promoting self-regulated learning is very important, because students will gradually acquire self-regulated strategies by

accumulated experiences. Teachers have an important role to patiently support and wait for students to find their ways to become a more independent and self-regulated learner. It is desirable to decrease the amount of teachers' control on students so that they can find their own most suitable ways and strategies of learning. At the same time, it is important for teachers to focus on the students' results or progress in a particular task and whether they are acquiring the strategies or skills to regulate themselves.

In this section, I examined the concepts of self-regulated learning. The role of goals, interest, reward, and self-efficacy in self-regulated learning is identified, as well as the importance of metacognitive awareness and self-regulatory strategies in language learning and motivation. The next section describes another important concept for the present study, self-determination theory.

2.3. Self-determination theory

The concept of self-determination theory (SDT) is relevant to the present study, because SDT describes the graded internalization of external motives. In other words, it treats motivation as a process in the same ways as the theory of self-regulated learning. Since SDT analyses the detailed levels and types of self-regulation in motivation, it is a useful construct when designing teaching strategies to promote student motivation at the many different stages of motivation, not only for already motivated students, but also for those who have

little interest in learning.

2.3.1. Intrinsic versus extrinsic view of motivation

The relatively comprehensive work of SDT was launched in the mid-1980s (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Since that time, research on SDT has developed in many fields such as sport, education, and healthcare. Earlier studies of motivation primarily focused on two types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The tendency had been to treat these two types of motivation as a dichotomy (Vallerand, 1997). Intrinsic motivation focuses on pleasure and satisfaction (Guay, Boggaiano, & Vallerand, 2001). When students are intrinsically motivated, they do the task simply because they find it interesting and enjoyable. Extrinsic motivation focuses on outcomes that are separable from the action itself (Ryan & Deci, 2002). When students are extrinsically motivated, they do the task because they have to submit the work assigned by the teacher or because they want to get good marks on the test, for example.

A large body of research has shown that intrinsic motivation results in high performance, longer persistence, and a high quality of learning, so it has traditionally been treated as an important phenomenon by educators (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In contrast to the perception of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation has traditionally been characterized as an insufficient, and sometimes inappropriate, type of motivation for students. Extrinsic motivation

has been characterized as being non-autonomous. Research shows that extrinsic motivation negatively affects intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

2.3.2. Different types of regulation in motivation

Unlike the early view of intrinsic verses, the extrinsic motivation SDT view of extrinsic motivation is more differentiated. It proposes varied types of extrinsic motivation. Some represent insufficient forms of motivation and others represent more active and powerful methods to promote student learning. This view is based on the organismic integration theory (OIT) which claims that people naturally integrate their ongoing experiences (Ryan & Deci, 2002) into their approaches to learning. The concept of OIT postulates that the way people regulate their behaviour can be shaped by external factors, such as rewards, but that their ability to regulate their behaviour can subsequently become internalized. This process can be seen as a development of autonomy.

SDT views this phenomenon of internalization and transformation of external regulation into self-regulation as a continuum, rather than as a dichotomy between extrinsic or intrinsic motivation. This point is very important for the present study, as the aim of this study is to investigate how students can be helped to develop motivation and self-regulatory behaviour in their language learning.

Deci and Ryan's concept of extrinsic regulation explains the development and dynamics, as well as the process of motivation. They argue that there are four different types of extrinsic regulation: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (see Figure 2.2.). Each type of regulation differs in the degree to which people experience autonomy. Their model also includes "amotivation", which refers to a lack of motivation.

Let us now look, in detail, at amotivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation. I will then assess the extent to which the students in this study are likely to exhibit each of these five characteristics.

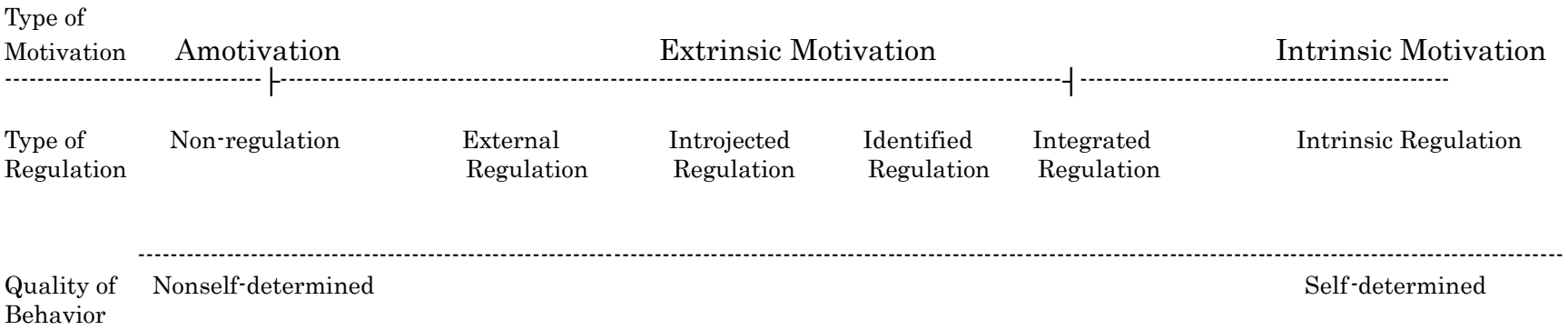


Fig. 2.2. The Self-determination continuum, with types of motivation and types of regulation. Material drawn from Ryan and Deci (2002, p. 16).

Amotivation

Amotivation (on the far left of Figure 2.2.) refers to the lack of intention to act. When students are amotivated, they do not work at all or are completely passive and work in the ways that they are told to with no sense of intention to work. Many teachers may have experienced the situation where a student just sits in front of them, without paying attention to the teacher or the class events at large.

Amotivation is believed to be caused by the student's feeling that she or he is unable to achieve desired outcomes, a lack of competence or not valuing an activity (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It may be caused by the sense of resentment towards the teacher's personality, or teaching style, especially when students are still at an immature stage. For example, imaginary student Ichiro (a Japanese junior high school student) might not do his English homework at all for several reasons. One reason is the fact that he does not understand the content of the task. At first, he did understand the meaning of the text and the task, but he did not realize the value of doing it, so he left it unfinished. After ignoring several homework assignments, he realized that he was not able to understand the content of the task. Mr. Tanaka, the English teacher, kept accusing Ichiro of not doing his work, so Ichiro started to dislike Mr. Tanaka. He decided not to listen to Mr. Tanaka and did not do any work in his class. The relationship with Mr. Tanaka worsened. In this case, the student is amotivated.

External regulation

External regulation is the least restrictive form of extrinsic regulation. Externally motivated behaviours are performed to satisfy external demand or obtain an externally imposed reward contingency or a socially constructed contingency. These externally imposed contingencies include avoidance of a scolding, or receipt of tangible rewards, such as food, stamps on the logbook for the work, or money. Socially constructed rewards include praise, awards, or avoidance of disapproval (Deci & Ryan, 1985). For example, imaginary student Ichiro (the boy mentioned previously) might be scolded by his parents about his behaviour at school. The parents would be called by the school and informed that Ichiro must leave school unless he changes his attitude and actions at school. Understanding this punishment, he might reluctantly finish his homework. His intention to do his work would only depend on the idea of avoiding punishment and nothing more. For example, he might merely write down an answer he thinks is correct and not check it with his answer key. He might not review his work, because he does not have any intention to master it. For some parts of his homework, he might even copy the answer key into his notebook so he could finish the work quickly. In this case, Ichiro would be "externally regulated".

In the present study it is presumed that most of the students will have this type of motivation at the beginning. This assumption is based on my own knowledge of Japanese society and of the ways in which students attending the university in question have been brought up.

Introjected regulation

Introjected regulation is the second type of extrinsic regulation (next to external regulation in the Figure 2. 2.). Even though the development of regulation is not necessarily a continuum in nature, real internalization can occur from this type of regulation. In this sense, introjected regulation and two other aspects of regulation (regulation through identification and integrated regulation) can be differentiated from external regulation. This kind of regulation occurs when teachers are able to make students feel genuinely proud of their achievements or ashamed of their failures. It has a strong affective element and the idea is that it helps students reflect on their own development.

According to Ryan and Deci (2002), there are three types of internalization that differ in the degree to which the regulations become integrated with a person's sense of self (p. 16). A person's sense of self is interpreted as self-esteem and ego enhancement. With *introjected regulation*, people take in an external demand or regulation and act with the feeling of pressure to avoid guilt, shame or self-derogation, or to obtain a sense of pride or maintain self-esteem. This differs from the external regulation described previously in that a sense of self is related to people's behaviour. They act in response to external demands or pressure and also in response to internal pressure. Although the regulation is internal to the person, it is still controlling. People take in an external and internal control without feeling a sense of ownership of self. In this sense, introjected regulation is still a partially internalized regulation.

Ichiro (mentioned previously) might have recently begun to study at home regularly. His English teacher might have changed, from Mr. Tanaka to Mr. Sato, and Mr. Sato might praise Ichiro when he submits the daily homework. For this reason, Ichiro might like Mr. Sato, and begin keeping the study log that Mr. Sato has recommended to him. Mr. Sato might then put a silver stamp in the log when Ichiro finishes the homework each day. Ichiro might then feel that he is a failure or a weak person on the occasions when he does not earn the stamp. Equally, he might feel very happy when he sees the row of silver stamps without a gap, so he might try to finish his work. However, Ichiro may admit that he still copies the answer key sometimes, especially when he has plans to go out with friends.

It is unlikely that there will be many students in this course who naturally exhibit this kind of motivation. My reason for saying this is that the students who come to my classes have usually repeatedly failed their language classes in high school and often lack very basic grammatical knowledge. They do not tend to be hard working and appear to have developed a negative attitude towards learning.

Identified regulation (Regulation through identification)

Identified regulation (regulation through identification) is a more autonomous, or self-determined, form of extrinsic motivation. With regulation through identification, people have identified with the personal importance of an act and

have accepted its regulation as their own. The true ownership of the act has shifted from external demands to the self, thus this regulation represents an important aspect of the process of transforming external regulation into self-regulation.

With Identified regulation, people take in an external demand, or an act, and value it as personally important. Then they engage in the act with a greater sense of autonomy and do not feel pressure (either external or internal) or control to perform the behaviour. Although it is relatively autonomous, or self-determined, regulation through identification is not a complete form of internalization of regulations, because some identification can be relatively compartmentalized or separated from one's other beliefs and values (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Let us imagine that the aforementioned Ichiro has recently stopped copying the answer key to his notebook for his homework. His copying may have ceased because he has begun to think about the meaning of the work and realized that it is good to master how to read and write in English. He may have started to use the Internet and found that it is more enjoyable if he can read the web sites that are written in English. In addition, he may have found that the more he memorizes words and phrases in English, the easier the answers become for the questions in the homework. His new teacher, Mr. Sato, may have noticed an improvement in Ichiro's English and praised him.

Integrated regulation

Integrated regulation is the most autonomous, or self-regulated form, of extrinsically motivated behaviour. Integration occurs when identified regulation has been evaluated and endorsed with values, goals, and needs that are already part of the self (Ryan & Deci, 2002). With integrated regulation, people will self-examine the external demand or act and bring new regulations into congruence with their other values and needs. Although integrated regulation shares many qualities with intrinsic motivation, such as being autonomous or not being controlled, integrated regulation remains as extrinsic regulation because behaviour is still being carried out for its external value, not for its inherent interest and enjoyment.

The aforementioned Ichiro, who is now in the final year of high school, may be studying English very diligently because English is one of the important subjects for his entrance examination to university. He may now have a clearly formed goal of becoming a doctor. After graduation, he may want to train in a medical specialty in an English-speaking country, so English may be very important for his future. For his short-term goal of entering a university, he may have made a detailed study plan, including English. Through his studying, which was originally done for the sole purpose of passing an entrance examination, Ichiro may have discovered "colloquial" English. Although he really likes this kind of English and finds it "intrinsically motivating", he realizes that it will not help

him get through his examination. Here therefore focuses on “formal” English. To help himself keep up his concentration, he continues to use the reward system that his old teacher has set up for him in Junior High School. He continues to award himself treats at the end of every chapter in his textbook.

In the Figure 2.2., intrinsic motivation is placed at the far right end to show that intrinsic motivation is a prototype of self-determined behaviour. However, this does not mean that as extrinsic regulation becomes more internalized, it is transformed into intrinsic motivation. In addition, it is important to know that SDT does not suggest that it is a developmental continuum, nor that people should progress through each stage of internalization. Rather, SDT suggests it is possible for people to take in a regulation at any point along this continuum, depending on the relevant prior experience and situational factors (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

2.3.3. The importance of the most autonomous type of extrinsic regulation

SDT recognizes that intrinsic motivation is the prototypical and most autonomous form of regulation. However, in presenting this study, I have chosen to recognize intrinsic motivation merely as one of the forms of self-regulation, which is separable from the most autonomous form of extrinsically regulated behaviour. In other words, intrinsic motivation is not necessarily valued as the most desirable form of motivation for successful learning. There are two reasons

for this. One is that intrinsic motivation does sometimes negatively affect the learning goal the student must achieve.

In Ichiro's case, as integrated regulation indicated, his intrinsic motivation to study colloquial English may negatively affect his study plan. He has to forget his intrinsic motivation for the external purpose of entering a university. A second reason is that it is not practical to aim at obtaining intrinsic motivation for all the subjects studied in the school setting. Each student may have a different interest, however, they have to study all of the subjects according to the requirements.

The view that intrinsic motivation is not necessarily the most desirable motivation is supported by Koestner and Losier's research (2002). They conducted long-term longitudinal studies with students who were making a transition at the end of high school or the end of college. Participants' reasons for being in school were assessed, along with measures of school satisfaction and general psychological distress. Self-regulation is assessed by asking participants to rate their reasons for participating in an activity. Introjected reasons reflect pressure and compulsion, whereas identified reasons reflect consideration of important personal values and goals ("I go to school because this will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation"); and intrinsic reasons reflect a natural inclination to pursue activities.

They found that intrinsic and identified regulation is conducive to positive outcomes, such as active information processing, the experience of positive emotions, and successful adaptation to school transitions. They also found that only "motivation through identification" was consistently associated with a higher level of psychological adjustment as students made school transitions. They concluded that with activities that are likely to be perceived as quite uninteresting, it is likely that the extent to which individuals have consciously integrated the value of activities into their personal goals and values will be more important than their intrinsic interest in the domain. They also suggest that "someone who is highly identified towards a given domain is likely to persist at even uninteresting activities within the domain, whereas there is a risk that someone whose regulation is exclusively based on intrinsic motivation will invest themselves only in those domain-relevant activities that are interesting to them" (p. 114).

This applies to Ichiro's case as well. Although he is intrinsically motivated in learning colloquial English, his integrated regulation towards study for the entrance examination is more reliable and more beneficial to his goal. Vallerand, Pelletier & Koestner (2008) also claim that when the task is less interesting, intrinsic motivation becomes less relevant, and the most self-determined forms of extrinsic motivation leads to the most positive outcomes. In line with this study, Wilson, Rodgers, Blanchard & Gessell (2003) found that altering dysfunctional behaviours might be accomplished through the development of identified

regulation in the field of physical education. They found that *identified regulation* is associated with positive motivational consequences in the form of more frequent exercise behaviour, positive attitudes towards exercise, and overall physical fitness.

In the field of foreign language learning, Nakata (2006) claims that extrinsic motivation should not be regarded as an antagonistic counterpart of intrinsic motivation and that extrinsic motivation is not necessarily a negative factor that diminishes intrinsic motivation. He believes that both factors coexist as motivation, and sometimes it is difficult to know whether a person possesses intrinsic motivation or extrinsic motivation, or both.

2.3.4. Autonomous motivation versus Controlled motivation

Recent research on SDT (Vallerand, Pelletier & Koestner, 2008) has postulated the fact that most self-determined types of motivation lead to the most adaptive outcomes, regardless of the distinction between intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. This claim is well summarized as:

> …the most positive outcomes are derived from the self-determined types of motivation (i.e., intrinsic motivation, integrated and identified regulation), while the less self-determined forms of motivation (introjected and external regulation) are either unrelated or negatively related to adaptive outcomes (p. 259).

The concept within SDT around internalization and types of regulation has shifted the distinction from intrinsic versus extrinsic to autonomous versus controlled motivation.

The effectiveness of different types of regulation (autonomous and controlled motivation) on the academic outcomes has been investigated by Ratelle, Guay, Vallerand, Larose, and Sencal (2007). They had three different student's motivational profiles for high school students:

(a) a controlled profile (i.e., highly externally controlled);

(b) a profile characterized by moderate levels of both autonomous and controlled motivations; and,

(c) a profile characterized by high levels of both autonomous and controlled motivations.

They found that the profile characterized by high levels of both autonomous and controlled motivation was most adaptive to academic outcomes. This profile was associated with positive school outcomes, such as high persistence and achievement, low absenteeism, and high cognitive and affective functioning. It is interesting to know that they did not find an autonomous motivational profile in this high school population.

Ratelle et al. (2007) explain that high school students tend to develop controlled forms of motivation, because the high school environment entails more extrinsic controls and rigid constraints. This finding is relevant to the present study

because the target students of the present study are in a similar environment, where they are also exposed to relatively controlled and rigid constraints, even though they are university students. They must get a credit for the language class to meet the standard to be promoted to the next grade or to graduate. They were not allowed to be absent for more than one third of the total classes. Knowing that Japanese high school students work under similar conditions, it is predicted that both autonomous and controlled motivations are related positively to the academic outcomes for Japanese university students in the present study.

Ratelle et al. (2007) conducted a similar study for university students. These students had three profiles:

(a) a high autonomous /high controlled profile;

(b) a low autonomous/low controlled profile; and,

(c) an autonomous profile.

They found that achievement levels were similar for those who have only autonomous motivation and those who have autonomous and controlled motivations. However, they found that the "autonomous-only" profile had a stronger association with academic persistence. Their findings seem to suggest three possibilities:

(1) for students to develop controlled motivation or autonomous motivation, to some extent, depends on the characteristic of educational environment (rigid, or autonomy-supportive);

(2) when the environment permits, students who endorse more autonomous

motivations are the most persistent in their learning; and

(3) both autonomous motivation and combined motivation (autonomous and controlled) are adaptive to academic achievement.

2.3.5. Basic psychological needs in internalization of regulation

Promoting autonomous motivation (intrinsic, identified and integrated motivation) rather than controlled motivation seems to be the central issue for educators in terms of leading students to higher achievements and longer persistence in academic tasks. The next question is how we can promote students' internalization. Many SDT researchers suggest important requirements or social conditions for the successful promotion of internalization. They propose that conditions be supportive of the "basic psychological needs" (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2002) that would facilitate internalization and integration. There are three basic psychological needs: relatedness, competence, and autonomy. SDT proposes that these are necessary conditions for the growth and well-being of people's personalities and cognitive structure.

Relatedness

SDT postulates that people have an innate requirement to feel connected to others, to be cared by or care for others, and to have a sense of belonging with individuals and the community. A person's need to feel oneself as being related to others is not necessarily aimed at attaining a certain outcome or a status related

to the psychological sense of being with others in a secure communion or unity (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Although it is not directly related to the internalization of motivation, such internalization is very difficult to achieve without it. In other words, support from significant others is a vital part of the process.

Competence

SDT postulates that people have an innate need to be effective in their interactions with the environment (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The need for competence leads people to seek and conquer challenges that are optimal for their capacities. In addition, interactions with stimuli that are challenging promote the acquisition of competence. People accumulate a sense of competence after their interaction with the environment, exploration, learning, and adaptation. In the field of education, this is sometimes referred to as "a sense of achievement", "a sense of mastery", or "a sense of efficacy". Competence, when used in SDT, does not mean an attained skill or capability, but a self-sense of confidence and effectiveness in action (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Autonomy

SDT postulates that people have an innate need to be the perceived origin or source of their own behaviour. When people are autonomous, they act from interest or integrated value. They behave as an expression of the self, feeling both initiative and value with regard to themselves, even if those actions are influenced by outside sources. Although autonomy is often confused with

independence, SDT considers there is no antagonistic relationship between autonomy and dependence. People can autonomously enact values and beliefs that others requested, provided that people endorse them (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

SDT clearly states that there are many motives to satisfy these needs, but there are many motives that do not lead to people's well-being. In other words, attaining one's goals efficaciously, and even achieving desirable performance, sometimes does not ensure one's psychological well-being. In that case, even if a person achieves a particular goal, with an impaired sense of well-being, it is doubtful whether that person will continue towards the successful achievement of their next goal.

According to SDT, people require regular experience of autonomy, competence, and relatedness to maximize their motivation. In other words, people need to feel that they are good at what they do or at least can become good at it (competence); that they are doing what they choose and want to be doing, that is, what they enjoy or at least believe in (autonomy); and that they are relating meaningfully to others in the process. That is, connecting with other people (relatedness) (Sheldon & Krieger, 2007, p. 885).

2.3.6. Promoting internalization of regulation with conditions supportive of the basic psychological needs

Given the significance of people's psychological needs and the importance of the internalization of regulation, the practical issue concerns how to promote internalization of regulation while satisfying those three basic needs: relatedness, competence, and autonomy.

Many SDT researchers have revealed the importance of autonomy and competence support (autonomy, competence) by significant others (relatedness). Deci, Eghrari, Patrick and Leone (1994) suggest three contextual events that promote the internalization of regulation: (a) providing a meaningful rationale; (b) acknowledging the person's perspective towards the behaviour; and, (c) conveying choice rather than control.

Providing a rationale

Providing a rationale which is meaningful to the target person helps him or her in understanding why a behaviour is important and valuable to him or her. For example, a meaningful rationale of material management for a boy who misplaces his worksheets might be, "if you put the worksheet into your English file now, then you can easily find the sheet when you want to use it next time." Sometimes it is still difficult to act as requested, especially when it is not interesting, even if a meaningful rationale is provided. In such cases, people may

have internal conflicts with their inclination resulting in negative feelings such as pressure, tension, or anxiety.

Acknowledgements

By demonstrating the acknowledgements of the apparent conflict between the request and the inclination, it is possible to convey respect for the person's inclinations and the right to choose. This is helpful in that it alleviates negative feelings and allows him or her to understand that the requested behaviour can harmoniously coexist with other inclinations.

Choice rather than control

The meaningful rationale and acknowledgement of personal feelings should be presented in a way which permits people to feel choice about doing the activity and not in a controlling and pressuring way. If a teacher or a parent requests an activity using "should", "must", and "have to", the communication will be functionally controlling and both internalization and integration will be impaired. Instead, if a teacher or a parent allows a student to feel choice, minimizing pressure, then the communication will be autonomous support, thus facilitating internalization. For example, if a student does not like to put worksheets provided by a teacher into her folder, the teacher or the parent might say, "if you put your papers into your file now, rather than putting them under the desk, you might be able to save a lot of time finding them whenever you want to use it next time." Then the teacher or the parent can add, "I know it is not fun

for you to bother doing it now." And say, "I was like you when I was at your age. I wish I had known about the difficult but very useful skill at that time."

Deci et al. (1994), after experimental research, found that contexts that were supportive of autonomy promoted integration, whereas those that were non-supportive of autonomy promoted introjection. In addition, they found that controlling contexts can promote internalization, but there will be less internalization, on average, than in the autonomy-supportive contexts. The internalization that does occur is likely to be more conflicted (i.e., introjected).

2.3.7. Promoting internalization in school settings

Numerous studies have been conducted to reveal the characteristics of necessary support to promote the internalization of regulation. For instance, Chirkov and Ryan (2001) found that relationships between perceived autonomy support and well-being and school motivation were evident in both Russian and U.S. students. Deci, Schwarts, Sheinman and Ryan (1981) assessed the teachers' orientation towards controlling versus supporting autonomy in children. They found that children in classrooms with autonomy-oriented teachers saw their teachers as more supportive of autonomy. As a result, the children were more intrinsically motivated to learn, perform better, and have higher levels of perceived competence. This relationship was observed within the first two months of the school year and remained essentially constant over the remainder of the year.

Sheldon and Krieger (2007) conducted a three-year study of law school students. They found that students who rated faculty within their program as more controlling experienced declining psychological need satisfaction (autonomy, competence, and relatedness). For example, this led to a reduced well-being, poorer grade performance, and less self-determined motivation to pursue the legal career. Based on the previous research (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999; Flink, Boggiano, & Barrett, 1990; Reeve, Jang, harder, & Omura, 2002) investigated teaching behaviours characterized as autonomy-supportive. According to the investigation, autonomy-supportive teachers' instructional behaviours included:

- Listening more
- Spending less time holding instructional materials, such as notes or books
- Giving students time for independent work
- Giving fewer answers to the problems students face

Autonomy-supportive teachers' conversational statements included:

- Avoiding being directive
- Praising mastery
- Avoiding giving criticism
- Giving answers less often
- Responding to student-generated questions
- Communicating statements rich in empathy and perspective-taking

Autonomy-supportive teachers distinguished themselves by

- Supporting intrinsic motivation

- Supporting internalizations
- Coming across as less demanding or pressuring

These behaviours are useful for the present study, whose aim is to design teaching strategies that are likely to promote internalized motivation in English language classrooms in Japan.

2.3.8. Promoting internalization in homes

A large number of studies have examined the relationships of parents' support with children's motivation. Although the subjects of the present study are university students, it is believed that there is much to learn from the successful (and unsuccessful) support of parents for children's motivations, academic achievement, adaptation to school and well-being.

Parents' support style and children's behaviour

For children's behaviour, Grolnick, Ryan and Deci (1991) postulate that there are three important motivational inner resources of children: control understanding, perceived competence, and relative autonomy. Control understanding reflects the degree to which children show that they understand who or what is responsible for their important school outcomes. Perceived competence refers to the fact that children can feel they have the competence to perform the behaviour. Relative autonomy refers to the perceived autonomy support from parents.

They found that control understanding and perceived competence are strongly linked with achievement. Also, parents' autonomy support and involvement positively predicted control understanding, perceived competence, and relative autonomy, all of which predicted achievement. Thus, it is important that parents support children so that they can understand who is responsible for the school work and why they are doing it. It is also important that parents support children so that they can feel they are competent to do the work in an autonomy-supportive way.

Imposition of structure as a type of parental support

In terms of the important factors that promote internalization, a slightly different approach from those in school settings is presented by Joussemet, Landry and Koestner (2008). They postulate three important key components of parental support: (a) autonomy support, (b) involvement, and (c) structure. Autonomy support is based on one of the basic psychological needs. Involvement is one of these psychological needs. Both have been examined in the previous studies in school settings.

The introduction of structure as an important parental support is presumably meaningful to the academic settings. Joussemet et al. claim that providing structure is one of the important behavioural controls by parents. It refers to giving clear expectations about appropriate behaviours and monitoring children's behaviour related to those expectations of children's behaviour. Those structures

include the following: rules, regulations, guidelines, goals, and limits. Without structures, it is unlikely that children internalize essential values. They argue it is the imposition of a clear, consistent, and developmentally appropriate structure of that it is possible to encourage children to comply with behavioural limits without negatively affecting children's motivation, as long as the limits are provided with autonomy and in a supportive manner (warm and democratic way). In line with the autonomy support in school settings, they define four ingredients of autonomy support in homes: (1) providing rationale and an explanation for behavioural requests; (2) recognizing the feelings and perspective of the child; (3) offering choices and encouraging initiative; and (4) minimizing the use of controlling techniques.

Joussemet et al. emphasize that autonomy support should not be confused with permissiveness, which means lack of structure or neglect or a lack of involvement. The critical point of successful parental support lies in how structure and involvement are provided by parents. Giving a developmentally appropriate level of structure and parental involvement in an autonomy-supportive way seems to contribute to the most positive child development. Being clear, being consistent, and setting limits in an understandable, empathic manner are the important requirements for autonomy support.

The important role played by the imposition of structure has significant implications for the present study, because the subjects in this study have had

repeated experiences of unsuccessful learning. They need to cope with academic tasks that may be uninteresting to them. It is believed that a certain kind of supportive structure is needed for those students to progress their learning.

The effect of rewards in internalization

With experimental research, the effects of using rewards versus providing autonomy support when promoting children's involvement with an uninteresting, but important activity was examined by Joussemet, Koestner, Lekes, and Houlfort (2004). They defined autonomy support as encouraging initiatives, and providing meaningful rationales for requests, as well as minimizing controlling language. They found that the autonomy-supportive approach led to more enjoyment, internalization of the task's value, and more integrated functioning. They also found that contingent rewards created an almost instant detrimental effect. They argue that the use of rewards may interfere with internalization of the activity's value and impede self-regulation. In other words, rewards may act as one form of the external control, which prevents children from learning to integrate new rules or behaviour into their sense of self.

This finding is also important for academic contexts, because the risk of rewards became clearer. If the goal of the educator is the compliance towards rules, rewards may be effective because it can control behaviour very quickly. However, if the goal is to promote students most self-determined regulation or most autonomous motivation, educators must keep in mind that rewards are powerful

and risky tools that may prevent students from developing the internalization of regulations.

Parents' support style and adolescent's behaviour

The relationship between parents' autonomy support and adolescent behaviour has been investigated by Williams, Cox, Hedberg, and Deci (2000). They examined adolescents' high-risk behaviour as a function of their extrinsic aspirations of wealth, fame, and image relative to their intrinsic aspirations for growth, relationships and community. They found that autonomy-supportive parental environments are associated with adolescents having stronger intrinsic life value (growth, relationships and community) than adolescents having extrinsic life value (wealth, fame, and image), because autonomy-supportive parents' facilitate adolescents in experiencing satisfaction of their basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence, relatedness).

Furthermore, the results indicated that adolescents having strong extrinsic values are associated with their engagement in more high-risk behaviours. They suggest that adolescents holding strong extrinsic values were not supported to look into their own basic needs, rather than looking outward (peer pressure to use drugs, tobacco, and alcohol), because of the low autonomy-supportive parents. This study implicates the importance of autonomous support in terms of encouragement for students to look inside and think about the value of behaviour themselves, rather than to simply obey the external rules, pressures or forces.

Developmental outcomes of control

The risk of diminishing people's ability for inner thinking, as presented previously, has also been mentioned by Grolnick, Ryan and Deci (1991). They found that parental emphasis on obedience, compliance, and the use of power-assertive techniques leads children to be less social, more hostile and less well-adjusted. They postulate that autonomy-supportive parents help children to develop a sense of themselves as the locus of initiation of their actions, which allows them to perceive more autonomy, more competence, and to gain a higher control understanding (i.e., an understanding of who and what is responsible for the outcomes of their behaviour).

2.3.9. The issue of motivational change

It has been revealed that the internalization of regulation plays a critical role in improving academic achievement and autonomous learning in many SDT-related studies. However, the way in which this process occurs in human psychological development is an issue that is still not well understood. Does it occur from the most controlled type of regulation (external regulation) to the more self-determined type of regulation (introjected, identified, and integrated) as a progression in a step-by-step manner? Do some people skip a certain regulation and convert to a more self-regulated type?

Vallerand's hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Vallerand and Ratelle (2002) provide a model that integrates three different types of motivation (intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation) into a hierarchical structure with three different levels (global, contextual, and situational) of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The model is aimed at providing a useful framework to specify determinants and consequences at particular levels. For example, it is important to identify a student as being externally regulated towards education (contextual level) in order to use an appropriate teaching strategy which promotes the student to be more self-determined towards school. If the student is identified as being only intrinsically regulated at the global level, the finding may lead him or her to neglect some useful information (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002).

The hierarchical model proposes that self-determined motivation exists at three different levels. The first level of hierarchy is a global level. This level refers to a person's general motivational orientation towards their environment. This perspective is similar to a personality trait (Blanchard, Mask, Vallerand, de la Sablonnière, & Provencher, 2007). In addition, it refers to relatively enduring individual differences with respect to people's motivations (Guay, Mageau, and Vallerand 2003). The second level is the contextual level. This level deals with relatively generalized self-determined motivation in broad life contexts, such as interpersonal relationships, education, work, religion, and sports. The third level of motivation is a situational level. This refers to people's motivation towards a

given activity at a specific point in time.

The hierarchical model proposes that motivation at one given level results from motivation at the next proximal level. Accordingly, a top-down effect and also a bottom-up effect are postulated. A top-down effect means that motivation at a higher level, a contextual level for example, affects motivation at the next level of generality, the situational motivation. For example, a student who is, in general, externally regulated towards school-work will likely experience an externally regulated feeling while engaging in a specific academic task. A bottom-up effect means that motivation at a lower level, a situational level for example, affects motivation at the next higher level, a contextual level. For example, a student with repeated experiences of self-determination during a specific academic task will likely to have more self-determined motivation towards school-work itself.

Guy et al. (2003) evaluated 1122 college students on two occasions with a 5-year interval, and 2294 college students with a 1-year interval, on their global and school self-determined motivation. They found that a top-down effect is more likely to operate in a specific situation and over very short periods of time. For example, when people encounter a new situation, they are more likely to have a top-down effect. On the other hand, a bottom-up effect is more likely to take place over time within the context of a developmental framework. They conclude that the top-down effect might be more relevant in explaining how more global motivation can influence specific motivational self-representations in a given

context. The bottom-up effect might be more relevant in explaining the psychological process through which repeated experiences over cumulative contexts lead to changes in global motivation.

The interplay between motivation at the contextual level and at the situational level has been documented by Blanchard, Mask, Vallerand, de la Sablonnière and Provencher (2007). They found that situational motivation experienced during a sport activity would positively affect contextual motivation for that activity. They also found that higher levels of self-determined motivation at the contextual level led to higher levels of self-determined motivation at the situational level.

The theory of hierarchical models can be useful to the present study for considering the student motivational process. It may be possible to identify how a situational motivation in a specific academic task, after repeat experiences, can change into a more contextual motivation, such as a general attitude towards college work. However, this model does not seem to clarify how a student goes through an external type of motivation to a more self-determined form of motivation. It does not seem to be suitable to define whether a student transitions from one type of motivation to the next proximal type, or if he or she can skip one or two types of motivation (introjected to integrated, for example).

To date, there are no studies that clearly present how a person moves from one

type of motivation to any other types of motivation. Thus, it may be meaningful if the present research can investigate how individuals experience motivational change through specific types of regulation over varying periods of time.

2.3.10. Summary of Chapter 2

In this chapter, I examined two major concepts: self-regulated learning and self-determination theory. Preceding that examination, two important approaches in the cognitive approach of motivation, expectancy-value theory and attribution theory, which underlie self-regulated learning and self-determination theory, are closely examined.

In the first section, expectancy-value theory and attribution theory were confirmed in their ability to identify the important role of expectancy of success, self-perception of competence, and self-efficacy in successful learning behaviour and motivation. In the second section, self-regulated learning is investigated. The important role of goals, interests, rewards, and self-efficacy in self-regulated learning is confirmed.

Goal setting is important for successful learning. There are three significant points in developing the instruction model for the present study:

1. Although self-set goals are helpful in raising a student's sense of autonomy and self-efficacy, external support should be provided according to the

level of each student's existing motivation.

2. Once goals are set, the on-going monitoring of progress by the student should be encouraged.

3. The type of goal depends on the student's level of motivation and interest. An insufficiently motivated student should set clear, immediate, and specific goals.

There are two interests of importance to this study: situational interest and individual interest. Interests are considered to have a developmental nature. The four-phase model of interest development was proposed by Hidi and Renningger (2006). Based on this model, a variety of practical ideas for the development of students' interests were investigated.

Reward is a controversial issue in the cognitive approach in the field of educational psychology, because rewards do not necessarily lead to better performance. Cognitive Evaluation Theory (Deci, 1985,) views rewards as having a detrimental effect on intrinsic motivation (e.g., Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999) and self-regulated learning. However, social cognitive theory supports the positive effects of rewards. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) views external rewards as essential aspects in the process of self-regulation development, because the theory does not accept the idea of innate sources of motivation. Eight important factors for effective positive reinforcement (rewards) are suggested by Cameron and Pierce (2002). For the present study, delivering

appropriate rewards in an effective way is essential.

Self-efficacy plays an important role in self-regulated learning, primarily in three categories: behavioural engagement, cognitive engagement, and motivational engagement. For the present study, the need of support for the students who have low self-efficacy is recommended, since low self-efficacy has a negative effect on every engagement,.

Four major sources of self-efficacy are categorized by Bandura (1997): mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and physiological states. The concept of self-efficacy suggests that instructors for the present study should:

1. Enable students to experience success, even if it is small,
2. Guide students to perceive that their success be attributed to their effort and that their success is meaningful,
3. Let students become aware of other classmates' performance, as a basis on which to judge their own results,
4. Introduce cases of previous successful students and explain how they studied and performed,
5. Remember not to give negative persuasion, such as excessive pressure, sarcastic remarks, instructors' disappointment, frustration, or anger, and
6. Create a stress-free, anxiety-free, and enjoyable learning environment.

In addition, it is suggested that metacognitive and self-regulatory strategies be

incorporated into the instruction model.

In the third section, self-determination theory (SDT) is examined. The detailed structure of different types of regulation in motivation is discussed. It includes: amotivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, regulation through identification (or identified regulation), and integrated regulation. In addition, the three psychological needs to maximize students' motivation are investigated: of relatedness, competence, and autonomy. Their supportive function is considered to maximize student motivation and promote the internalization of regulation.

Finally, the theory of the hierarchical model of SDT is examined. Though it can be useful to the present study to determine how a situational motivation in a specific academic task changes into a more contextual motivation, this model does not clarify how the students' external motivation process develops into a more self-determined form of motivation. No previous studies have been conducted that clearly present how a person moves from one type of motivation to another through educational intervention. Therefore, one goal of the present study is to investigate how a person experiences motivational change through the various types of regulation.

I have examined the motivation research from the view of the educational psychologists. As I mentioned in Chapter 1, it is also useful for the present

research to incorporate more language focused concepts and ideas developed by SLA motivation researchers. In the next chapter, I will examine motivation research in the field of language.

CHAPTER THREE

UNDERSTANDING MOTIVATION AS A PROCESS IN THE FIELD OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

3.1. Introduction

In Chapter 2, motivation as a process was discussed from the view of educational psychology. In this chapter, motivation as a process is examined from the viewpoint of language learning. As in the field of educational psychology, motivation research in language learning covers a variety of concepts. Researchers "disagree strongly on virtually everything concerning the concept" (Dörnyei, 2001). Thus, it is important to focus on specific concepts and constructs that are beneficial to the present study.

In this chapter, I would like to overview how L2 (another term of a second language) motivation research has developed from a L2 community-specific concept to more general application of motivation in learning English as a global language that has a possibility for application to EFL learners. Following this, an application of L2 motivation research to classroom situations is examined, focusing on the following four elements: the view of motivation as a process, learner autonomy and autonomy support, motivational teaching practice based on theories of educational psychology, and the application of self-determination

theory to language learning.

3.2. An overview of L2 motivation research: The paradigm shift from a L2 community-specific orientation to concepts applicable to motivation in learning English as a global language

In this section, I briefly provide an overview of how L2 motivation research has developed and shifted according to changes in English language use within an increasingly globalized world. In addition, I will examine the implications of this shift to English learning and teaching for the present study, which is EFL.

The main theoretical discussion in L2 motivation research has long been dominated by Gardner's (1985) identification of two motivational orientations: *integrative* and *instrumental*. The integrative orientation concerns the desire to learn a language to interact with, or become, similar to members of that community. The instrumental orientation concerns the desire to learn a language for its practical value, such as getting a better job. In his Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 1985), integrativeness is further divided into three components: integrative orientation, attitudes towards the learning situation, and motivation. Integrativeness refers to a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to interact with the other language community. Attitudes towards the learning situation reflect attitudes towards any aspect of the situation in which the language is leaned. Motivation refers to the driving force in any situation.

According to Gardner (2001), the truly motivated individual display effort, desire, and affect (p.6).

In the last two decades, the emphasis on integrativeness in L2 learning motivational orientation has provoked debate. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) proposed that Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (1985) is limited by its narrow perspective on motivation, suggesting that L2 motivation researchers should consider non-L2 approaches to motivation:

> Discussion on the topic of motivation in second-language (SL) learning contexts has been limited by understanding the field of applied linguistics has attached to it. In that view, primary emphasis is placed on attitudes and other social psychological aspects of SL learning. This does not do full justice to the way SL teachers have used the term motivation. Their use is more congruent with definitions common outside social psychology, specifically in education (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991, p. 469).

Addressing the need for wider vision of motivation, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) expanded the Socio-Educational Model with new elements derived from the psychological literature: expectancy-value and goal theories. The new model includes elements such as goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy. Their research suggests that "specific goals and frequent reference to these goals lead to increased levels of motivational behavior", "higher levels of motivational

behaviour result when learning is valued", and "self-efficacy influences motivational behavior"(p. 515). In this way, they demonstrated the possibility of incorporating additional variables into their Socio-Educational Model without damaging its integrity.

A problematic issue however remains. This is that the concept of integrative orientation as motivational orientation means very little to some language learning environments, namely, that of the EFL.

A growing amount of research demonstrates dissatisfaction with the concept of integrative motivation. The empirical findings have not always supported Gardner's interpretation of the notion (Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006; Ushioda, 2006; Yahima, 2000, 2002). Ushioda (2006) has questioned the need for an "integrative" attitude in increasingly globalised language environments where there is no specific target reference group of speakers. She explores the idea of language motivation as an "investment", discussing the Council of Europe's active promotion of "plurilingualism" (or full and partial competences in more than one language) (p. 151). In the perspective of learning language as an investment, language is viewed as a symbolic and material resource that will enhance "cultural capital", identity, and desires (p. 153).

Nakata (1995) found an important individual difference variable among Japanese learners, an "international orientation", which involves a general

cosmopolitan outlook, suggesting that learners with international orientation study English as a means of communication while retaining their own identity as an international person. Nakata (2006) argues that integrative motivation is not necessarily effective for Japanese learners of English, stressing that "the notion of international orientation may be more effective for these learners" (p. 170). In a similar manner, Yashima (2002) postulates the concept of "international posture" as an important motivational construct in her study of Japanese students in an EFL context. "International posture" includes "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and … openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude towards different cultures, among others" (p. 57). The results of her study demonstrated that international posture influences motivation and predicts proficiency and L2 communication confidence.

Conducting and analyzing a large-scale investigation in Hungary, Dörnyei (2005) proposed a new motivational system, the *L2 Motivational Self System*, suggesting a reinterpretation of integrativeness as an *Ideal L2 self*. The validity of this reinterpretation of integrativeness is derived from the empirical findings of Dörnyei's longitudinal survey conducted in Hungary (Dörnyei et al., 2006). Apart from integrativeness, they measured several other motivational and attitudinal dimensions, such as *Instrumentality* (i.e., the pragmatic utility of learning the L2), *Direct contact with L2 speakers* (i.e., attitudes towards actually meeting L2 speakers and traveling to their countries), *Cultural interest*

(i.e., the appreciation of cultural products associated with the particular L2 and conveyed by the media, e.g., films, TV programmes, magazines and pop music), *Vitality of the L2 community* (i.e., the perceived importance and wealth of the L2 communities in question), *Milieu* (i.e., the general perception of the importance of foreign languages in the learner's school context and in friends' and parents' views), and finally, *Linguistic self-confidence* (i.e., a confident, anxiety-free belief that the mastery of an L2 is well within the learner's means) (Dörnyei, 2009a, p.26).

Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) work indicates that *Integrativeness* plays a key role and mediates the effects of all other attitudinal/motivational variables on two criterion measures, language choice and intended effort to study the L2. Additionally, the research indicates that the immediate antecedents of *Integrativeness* were *Attitude toward L2 speakers/community* and *Instrumentality*. Dörnyei came to the conclusion that integrativeness can be reinterpretated as an ideal language self-image (the *Ideal L2 Self*).

> Looking at 'integrativeness' from the self perspective, the concept can be conceived of as the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self: if our ideal self is associated with the mastery of an L2, that is, if the person that we would like to become is proficient in the L2, we can be described in Gardner's (1985) terminology as having an integrative disposition. Thus, the central theme of the emerging new theory was the equation of the motivational

dimensions that has traditionally been interpreted as 'integrativeness / integrative motivation' with the *Ideal L2 Self* (Dörnyei, 2009a, p. 27).

Dörnyei (2009a) also explains the connection between *Integrativeness* and its immediate antecedents of *Attitudes toward members of the L2 community* and *Instrumentality*. Firstly, *Attitudes toward members of the L2 community* are closely related to an ideal self image language. A self-interpretation of *Integrativeness* is compatible with the concept of *Attitudes toward members of the L2 community*. Secondly, learners' *Ideal L2 Self* includes success images, such as being professionally successful or obtaining better jobs using L2. Therefore, instrumental motives are linked to the *Ideal L2 self*.

Dörnyei (2009a) further mentions that there are two sides to *Instrumentality*. One is "ideal self-guides" that concern hopes, aspirations, advancements, growth, and accomplishments. The other is "ought-to self-guides" that focus on regulating the absence, or presence, of negative outcomes, as well as concern with safety, responsibility, and obligations. For example, if students learn English to get better jobs, they have instrumental motives with a promotion focus, whereas if students learn English for fear of failing an exam, they have instrumental motives with a prevention focus.

Dörnyei's *L2 Motivational Self System* consists of the three components: *Ideal L2, Ought-to L2 Self,* and *L2 Learning Experience.* If learners want to be proficient

in L2, the *Ideal L2 Self* motivates learners to learn L2, because learners try to reduce the gap between their actual selves and their ideal selves. The *Ought-to L2 Self* refers to less internalized, or more extrinsic, types of instrumental motives concerned with duties, responsibilities, or obligations, to avoid possible negative outcomes. If learners learn English so they do not get scores below average, they have an *Ought-to L2 Self*.

The *L2 Learning Experience* refers to situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience. These motives are derived from various elements in the learning environment and experiences such as proper autonomy support, peer group support, appropriate curriculum, and past successful experiences.

The challenge and possibility of this new reinterpretation of *Integrativeness* lies in how language teachers help learners construct their *Ideal L2 Self*. Dörnyei (2009a) suggests that teachers can provide awareness-raising and guide selection from the multiple aspirations, dreams, and desires that learners have already entertained in the past.

In this section, I reviewed how L2 motivation research developed from a rather narrow interpretation of *Integrativeness* as a motivational orientation to a more adaptable notion of a *L2 Motivational Self System*. For the present study, this paradigm shift is extremely meaningful, because I have long been wondering

how to understand the real meaning of Gardner's integrativeness for a learning situation where there is no target language community. Nakata's (1995) suggestion of "international orientation" and Yashima's (2002) "international posture" are meaningful and realistic alternatives to integrativeness, considering the increasingly globalized English use in contemporary times. Dörnyei's *L2 Motivational Self System* seems to be a "magic wand" that can change motivational and attitudinal dimensions to fit almost all language learning environments.

This ability arises because the language learner self-perception is always conducted by the language learners themselves, not by anything or anyone else in any environment. In this sense, a motivational system, where the central part consists of self-related concepts, can be seen as a universal idea. A number of problems remain inherent when we try to apply this idea to the present study. As I have already mentioned, the students in the present study have an extremely limited motivation without any real experience or contact with L2 speakers. In actual fact, three components of the *L2 Motivational Self System* cannot easily be applied to my students at the beginning stage of the instruction in my study.

However, hope can be found in the process-oriented concept of motivation examined in the next section. I would like to demonstrate that students' motivation can gradually develop in the process of language learning. In this sense, self-determination theory (SDT) reviewed in the previous chapter (Section

2.3.) can be seen as a useful concept. Capturing the three concepts of Dörnyei's *L2 Motivational Self System* in a SDT framework, I would like to propose the following process of language learning:

1. Start with an *L2 Learning Experience*

   It is suggested to provide students with learning opportunities with various autonomy supports, making sure students have a successful learning experience.

2. Move onto *Ought to L2 Self*

   With past successful learning experience, students can build confidence to learn English as well as learning habits, although some of them still have introjected motivation (i.e., from pressure or sense of obligation) in the framework of SDT.

3. Self-determined motivation as an *Ideal L2 Self*

   With the accumulation of the successful learning experience and metacognitive awareness, students move on to an integrated motivation in the framework of the SDT.

In the next section, views of motivation as a process in the field of language learning are examined.

3.3. The view of motivation as a process in language learning

As reviewed in the previous section, motivation-related research focusing on language learning has primarily been dominated by social psychologists. Gardner and his associates (e.g., Gardner, 2001; Gardner, Masgoret, & Mihic, 2004) examined the general motivational dispositions from a social perspective. Dörnyei (2009b) called this perspective "macro-social-psychological," (p. 210) claiming that Gardner and his associates were not necessarily successful in focusing on a "micro-level" learning environment, such as language classrooms. From the language teaching classrooms, the demand of research on actual progression, or the development of motivation, was raised. How motivation is generated and how it fluctuates and further develops over time became important issues to be examined (Dörnyei, 2000).

Dörnyei (2000) emphasized the importance of the "time" dimension of motivation for two reasons:

1. Motivation to do something usually evolves gradually, through a complex mental process that involves initial planning and goal setting, intention formation and task generation, and finally, action implementation and control.
2. In sustained long-term activities, such as the mastering of a school subject, motivation does not remain constant, but is characterized by regular appraisal and balancing of the various internal and external influences

that the individual is exposed to, resulting in a somewhat fluctuating pattern of effort and commitment (p. 524).

In the intention of taking the "time"' dimension of motivation into account, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) formulated a *Process Model of L2 Motivation*. This model was made up of two dimensions: *Action Sequence* and *Motivational Influences*. *Action Sequence* contains the behavioural process of initial wishes, hopes, and desires. These are transformed into goals and then into intentions, actions and evaluations. *Action Sequence* was further divided into three phases: the practional phase, actional phase, and the postactional phase. *Motivational Influences* include energy sources and motivational forces that underlie and fuel behavioural process.

Although a detailed explanation of the *Process Model of L2 Motivation* is not the intention of this section, the introduction of detailed motivational influences that Dörnyei and Otto described in the original *Process Model of L2 Motivation* (1998) are considered to have practical value for the present study. These motivational influences are summarized as follows:

1. Motivational influences on goal setting
- -Subjective values and norms
  - -Incentive value of goal-related actions, outcomes and consequences (instrumentality)
- -Perceived potency of potential goals
- -Environmental stimuli, action possibilities: family expectations
- -Language/Language-related attitude (integrativeness)

2. Motivational influences on intention formation
- *Expectancy of success/perceived coping potential
  - -Self-efficacy/self-confidence
  - -Perceived goal difficulty
- -Amount of expected support
- -L2 anxiety
- -Perceived L2 competence

-L2 contact
-Causal attributions
*Relevance (personal and setting related), cost-benefit calculations
-Need for achievement and fear of failure
-Degree of self-determination (type of regulation)
-Goal properties
- Goal specificity
- Goal proximity
- Goal harmony/conflict
- Level of aspiration
-Availability of task opportunities and options
-Learner beliefs about L2 learning, knowledge of learning strategies, domain-specific knowledge
-Urgency, external demands, unique opportunity

3. Motivational influences on the initiation of intention enactment
-Action vs. state orientation
-Perceived behavioural control
-Distracting influences and obstacles, number and strength of competing action tendencies
-Perceived consequences for not acting

4. Executive motivational influences
-Selective sensitivity to aspects of the environment
-Quality of internal model of reference
- Novelty
- Pleasantness
- Goal/need significance
- Coping potential
- Performance standards
-Perceived contingent relationship between action and outcome, perceived progress
- Success
- "Flow"
-Sense of self-determination/autonomy
-Teacher's and parents' motivational influence
- Autonomy supporting vs. autonomy controlling
- Affiliative motive
- Direct socialization of motivation
- Modelling
- Task presentation
- Feedback
-Performance appraisal, reward structure, classroom goal structure (competitive, individualistic, cooperative)
-Influence of learner group (goal-orientedness, cohesiveness, norm and role system, peer role modelling), classroom climate, and school environment
-Task conflict, competing action tendencies, other distracting influences, availability of action alternatives
-Cost involved and natural tendency to lose sight of goal and get bored/tired of the activity
-Knowledge of, and skills in, using self-regulatory strategies
- Language learning strategies
- Goal setting strategies
- Action maintenance strategies
-Perceived consequences of action abandonment

5. Motivational influences on post actional evaluation
-Attributional factors: attributional style and biases, prior knowledge about "scripted" events
-Self-concept beliefs: self-confidence/self-efficacy, self-competence, self-worth, and prior performance history
-Evaluational/attributional cues, feedback
-Action vs. state orientation

As Dörnyei (2000) himself mentioned, his construct does not offer new insights or novel motivational factors, but instead attempts to synthesize various influential conceptualizations of motivation in a systematic process-oriented framework (p. 524).

The previous list of motivational influences covers the most expected influences relating to the process of learning. For the present study, some of the motivational influences are very meaningful and can be incorporated into teaching strategies to enhance motivation. The influences important for the intention formation stage include self-efficacy/self-confidence, the amount of expected support, relevance, degree of self-determination, knowledge of learning strategies and external demands. The influences important for designing autonomy-supportive instruction include the perceived contingent relationship between action and outcome, sense of self-determination/ autonomy, teacher's autonomy support, reward structure, cooperative classroom climate, and the students' knowledge of, and skills in, using self-regulatory strategies.

Although it is beneficial for motivation researchers and educators to understand the model integrating various motivational factors using "time" as an organizing principle, Dörnyei himself acknowledged two weaknesses of the model (Dörnyei, 2000). One of the major weaknesses is that the actional process occurs in relative isolation, without any interference from other ongoing activities the learner is engaged in. In real language learning contexts, the process does not necessarily

occur as the described procedure of the model. For example, the “choice” phase of one actional step may occur simultaneously with the executive phase of another. In this sense, the model is not the process in a strict sense.

Another weakness is multiple engagements in a number of different activities at the same time. For example, students may engage in new action, while the success of the previous action is evaluated. In my view, although this model offers insights and a variety of useful ideas in designing teaching strategies, it is very difficult to “use” this model in real language learning settings, because it is too complicated to apply. In addition, each classroom has a variety of different conditions and characteristics in terms of language competence and motivation levels.

Since the motivation process is cyclical, rather than a one way process, it is not realistic to define goal setting as the first process of learning. Some students may set their own goals before engaging in actions, but other students may start learning and then set their learning goal. Therefore, in the present study, the cyclical process is used, rather than the one way or linear process.

The three stage non-linear process of motivation was advocated by Williams and Burden (1997). The three stages include reasons for doing something, deciding to do something, and sustaining the effort or persisting. Their principled view is that motivation is more than simply arousing interest. Sustaining the interest

and investing time and energy into putting in the necessary effort to achieve certain goals are also important considerations.

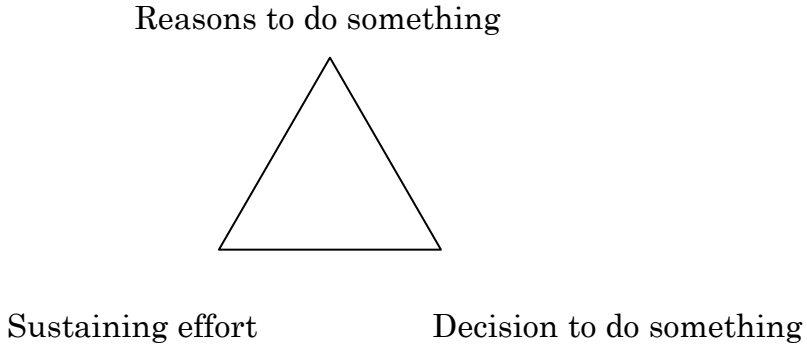


Figure 3.1. Williams and Burden's (1997) interactive model of motivation

Their model is valuable in that providing the process implies the relationship between stages. For example, reasons for doing something will affect persistence, while the very act of sustaining effort can provide a rise to further reasons for action (p. 122). Although this model is not cyclical, each stage can affect each other. Thus, it can provide a useful basic idea of a motivational process.

The developmental nature of motivation was demonstrated in Ushioda's study (1996a). She found motivation not only as a possible cause of language learning success, but also as a product of the learning experience. She defines motivation as a dynamic cyclical relationship with learning experience and success. Ushioda (1996b) also focused on motivational evolution over time, conducting a longitudinal qualitative interview investigation. Based on her findings, she

proposed a theoretical framework with two different learner conceptions of motivation. One is motivation derived from experience and the other is motivation directed towards future goals. For example, Learner A's motivational rationale is dominated by the positive impact of the learning experience, while goal-directed patterns of thinking play a minor role. In contrast, Learner B's motivational rationale is goal-directed, rather than derived from the past experience. This theoretical framework allowed the learners' motivational thought structure to develop as personal goals developed.

Ushioda (2001) also warned us of the damaging implication of the cause-and-effect relationship, with success for the poorly motivated unsuccessful language learners, because they might be trapped in a vicious circle of negative learning experiences and negative motivation. Ushioda's view of the developmental nature of motivation is very useful for the present study, because most of the students in the present study had experienced a failure in learning English, did not set clear goals and had a limited motivation at the beginning of the course.

Motivational changes, or the developmental nature of motivation, have been documented with both negative and positive directions of development by several researchers. A combined quantitative and qualitative investigation into the motivation of secondary school students in England was conducted by Williams, Burden, and Lanvers (2002). They found a clear negative trend with age in terms

of the students' integrative orientation, their feeling about the competence of their teachers, as well as the perceived importance of learning a foreign language. This negative trend was found between Years 7 and 9 cohorts. Students in Year 7 with enthusiasm to learn a foreign language at the beginning were found to be less motivated in Year 9.

Williams et al. (2002) also found that perceived success, perceived proficiency, and the amount of effort decreased significantly over the first three years at secondary school. They concluded that learners were found to become more external in their attributions for success and failure in learning a foreign language as they grew older (Williams & Burden, 1999; Williams et al. 2002). However, they did not investigate why this negative trend had happened, as well as in what way and when.

In this study, a more detailed longitudinal investigation into the mechanism of motivational development, including exactly when, why and how students' perception of learning changes over time is expected and will be conducted.

In a university setting, a motivational change over a period of one academic year was observed by Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, and Mihic (2004). They postulated the socio-educational model, proposing that language learning is a dynamic process, as opposed to a static one, in which an affective variable influences language achievement, the level of language achievement and the experience of

learning a language. They found that there is a general tendency for the scores on the measures of language attitudes, motivation, and anxiety to decrease from the fall to the spring semester. Their investigation of individual change assessed in terms of the analysis of the different scores demonstrated that the possibility of change is not great, but is larger for variables directly associated with the classroom environment than for more general variables, such as instrumental orientation or integrativeness. This result is important for the present study. However, the current study will also investigate why and how this negative tendency for the scores of the measure on motivation appear in a university setting.

Qualitative research to determine what motivates students to choose to study Spanish as a second language and remain in the programme past the usual two years was conducted by Shedivy (2004). She conducted a taped interview with five participants; these interviews were between two and four hours in length. Through the analysis of the data, she found several motivational components of L2 learners, also discussed by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993): desire, effort, satisfaction, integrativeness, and attitudes towards culture and the learning situation.

The findings illustrate that the desire to integrate grew over time. Shedivy's study focused attention on the integrativeness of the target culture as a motivational component. The language learning situation of the present study is

not that of a second language, the language which plays an important role in the community, or the society, but of a complete foreign language students learn at school, without L2 community around them.

It will be assumed that integrativeness would rarely appear as a motivational component of our students. However, this study is instructive for the present study in two senses. Firstly, the study illustrates the possibility of the investigation of motivational development over a longer time period in the way of a lifelong story. Secondly, the study demonstrates the usefulness of an in-depth interview of a limited number of participants.

Furthermore, Shedivy commented that:

> A qualitative study can more directly refer to the students' thoughts, and may show how students differ in the way they value and interpret their goals. These thoughts can illustrate how differences in motivational thinking may affect their involvement in learning. Likewise, the story of my participants is a picture of a journey or path that led to some very accomplished Spanish speakers. A chart or a table does not capture the story, but it is my hope that the descriptions and interpretations have shown the spark, the immersion, and the desire to blend in as a new frame around an old picture (p. 117).

In order to follow the detailed motivational change of the students, I shall use a

qualitative analysis and an individual case study.

In the Japanese university setting, Nakata (2006) conducted a longitudinal and qualitative investigation of motivational development. His study is very instructive for the present study, because the learner's setting is similar to the participants in the present study. In Japanese university settings, learners are usually demotivated by their learning experience in junior high school and high school and by learning English for the entrance examination to universities. In addition, the Japanese English learning setting is not that of L2, but of EFL. Thus, integrativeness and attitudes postulated by Gardner (1985) are not expected among Japanese learners.

Nakata proposes *an early-stage model of motivational development* that is well suited to Japanese learners. Nakata's model emphasizes the existence of the *autonomy threshold*, a barrier for the learners to cross to become an autonomous learner, in a real sense. Nakata (2006) describes such learners as:

> Learners who pass this threshold are able to see the whole learning process clearly while considering learning at school as part of their learning, understand the meaning of learning and why they are learning, actively take responsibility for their learning and set goals, and thus ready themselves for individual learning in the long term. Such learners study not only because it is fun but also because they think it is meaningful (pp. 136–137).

In Nakata's model of the early stages of motivational development, the intrinsic motivation of students who have been exposed to grammar-translation, rote-memorization, and/or the teacher-centred approach, commonly used methods in Japanese high schools, may be damaged. However, through the social interactive process, with a more communication oriented learning environment, students' intrinsic motivation can be revived. With motivation empowered by a social interactive process, such as group learning, self-expression, discussions, and freedom of choice, students can cross their autonomy threshold.

Nakata considers motivation to be a necessary impetus that helps students to pass over the threshold, thus, cognitive and motivational self-regulation is crucial in language learning at the personal level. However, social interaction between students in the learning environment plays a major role in enhancing students' intrinsic motivations.

Nakata (2006) collected qualitative data from five open-ended and closed-ended questionnaires over one academic year from five university students classified into five different learner types: a goal-directed learner, a hard-working learner, an intrinsically motivated learner, a more confident learner, and a reflective learner. Students learn by focusing on social interactions, including cooperative work, discussions with the topic of a students' choice, self-expression opportunities, both in writing and in speaking, computer-mediated learning,

essay writing and oral presentations. Based on the qualitative data, Nakata found that the learners can enhance both their affective and cognitive aspects of motivation by interacting with others and internalizing the significance of learning. He also found that students' conceptions of, and attitudes towards, English and the process of learning English changed when they realized the *usefulness* of being in situations in which they could learn the language by using it. He mentioned that students' confidence increased when they employed English as a genuine means of communication and self-expression (first through writing and then through speaking).

My past teaching experience led me to be in line with Nakata's finding, because I have found that most Japanese students failed to have motivation to learn English caused by the fact they had not been offered real opportunities and environments where they used English as a genuine means of communication and self-expression. At the same time, I assume it is not easy for many Japanese higher education settings to offer these opportunities for students who have not reached the level of proficiency to *use* English in the practical sense and enjoy this kind of opportunity. As Nakata (2006) mentioned, the motivational threshold is "not one that learners with weak motivation can easily pass over, for a certain level of motivation, is necessarily required to achieve autonomy" (p.137). For the participants in the present study, who have limited motivation, cognitive and motivational self-regulation, stronger autonomy support to achieve this "certain level of motivation" should be provided.

3.4. Learner autonomy and autonomy support

The ways to support students with very limited motivation and insufficient language proficiency have long been my concerns as both a teacher and a researcher. Although my students are not autonomous learners, when they come to my class in the beginning of the course, I strive to support and guide them to be able to cross Nakata's (2006) "autonomy threshold". The research outcome of the concept of learner autonomy in language learning provides various insights and practical ideas for the present study.

3.4.1. Overview of autonomy support

The term autonomy can be used in many different situations, levels, contexts, and times in relation to actual language learning. For the present study, autonomy is described as "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (Benson, 2001, p. 47). More specifically, Little (1991) mentioned that "autonomy is a *capacity* – for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action" (p. 4). In this sense, autonomy support is the support required to assist learners in developing the potential or capacity to take control of various stages of learning.

A number of studies demonstrate the mechanism or effect of learner autonomy

on language learning, from slightly different standpoints, but they all have several important elements in common.

The teacher as a facilitator, counsellor, and resource

The importance of the role of the teacher to assist students to become autonomous learners is described by Voller (1997) in three categories: the teacher as facilitator, the teacher as a counsellor, and the teacher as a resource. The facilitating function can further be divided into psycho-social support and technical support. The psycho-social features include:

- the personal qualities of the facilitator (being caring, supportive, patient, tolerant, empathic, open, non-judgmental),
- a capacity for motivating learners (encouraging commitment, dispersing uncertainty, helping learners to overcome obstacles, being prepared to enter into a dialogue with learners, avoiding manipulating, objectifying or interfering with, in other words, controlling them), and
- an ability to raise learners' awareness (to 'decondition' them from preconceptions about learner and teacher roles and to help them perceive the utility of, or necessity for, independent learning) (p. 102).

The features associated with technical support include:

- helping learners plan and carry out their independent language learning by means of needs analysis (both learning and language needs), objective setting (both short-and longer-term, achievable),

work planning, selecting materials, and organizing interactions,

- helping learners evaluate themselves (assessing initial proficiency, monitoring progress, and self-and peer-assessment), and
- helping learners acquire the skills and knowledge needed to implement the above (by raising their awareness of language and learning and by providing learner training to help them identify learning styles and appropriate learning strategies).

The features of the personal qualities and the capacity for motivating learners mentioned here are topics that many teachers have implemented, or are trying to implement, in their own everyday instruction. Raising learners' awareness can be noted as an essential point as a learner autonomy support. The features of technical support include the issues of learning strategy training and raising awareness of language and learning. The second category, the teacher as a counsellor, is explained in relation to the function of consultation and guidance for individualized programmes, such as a self-access centre. The third category, the teacher as a resource, is explained in relation to self-access situations. Thus, for the present study, raising the awareness of language, learning and learner strategies training are particularly useful for autonomy support.

Developing learner responsibility

Developing responsible attitudes in the learner is emphasized as a learner autonomy support concept by Scharle and Szabo (2000). They set three stages in

the process of developing learner responsibility: raising awareness, changing attitudes and transferring roles.

At the awareness-raising stage, teachers present new points and new experiences to the learner and encourage them to bring the inner process of learning to the conscious level of thinking, expecting the discoveries of learners such as 'Wow, this is interesting!' or 'So, that's the way it is!' (p. 9). Activities in this stage involve questionnaires to collect students' information, the introduction of learner strategies, community building to demonstrate the importance of listening to and cooperating with others and to help students learn about the views of others. Activities also include self-monitoring to think about their learning styles and compare them with those of others.

At the changing attitudes stage, teachers support learners to practice skills to begin changing attitudes. Activities are divided into four groups. The first group of activities serves to sustain interest and self-confidence. The second group of activities serves to help learners consciously practice learning strategies. The third group of activities serves to practice cooperation. This is aimed at reducing the dominance of the learner-teacher interaction and encouraging students to prepare for peer-evaluation and peer-correction. The fourth group of activities is concerned with self-monitoring. Activities are designed to help students be "their own teachers". They are expected to learn how to deal with their mistakes and problems in their learning, as well as to think about how and why they learn and

do things.

In the final stage of transferring roles, activities are designed to help students take control over the learning process and reinforce responsible and autonomous attitudes. Useful activities might include handling devices in the classroom, choosing learning materials, learners being a source of information, peer-monitoring and correction. Activities also include involving students in decisions about the learning process and the negotiating rules of behaviour in the classroom in the framework of a class contract.

Scharle and Szabo's (2000) ideas of autonomy support to develop learner responsibility have two interesting features. For one thing, autonomy support activities are designed in a step-by-step process. The activities are planned assuming that it takes time for students to develop a learner responsibility and be ready to accept the challenge of independence. Another feature is that community building is important in autonomy support. Peer support, encouragement, evaluation, and sharing different opinions and experiences can be very important elements of learner autonomy support in the classroom situation.

Learner autonomy as control over language management, cognitive process and learning content

The concept of learner autonomy in language learning is described more

comprehensively by Benson (2001) as three levels of control: the control over language management, the control over cognitive process, and the control over learning content. The three levels of control are interdependent.

For the first level, the control over language management, students need to gain behaviours to manage the planning, organization, and evaluation of their learning. These behaviours are considered to be gained through effective training in learning strategies.

The second level, the control over cognitive process, is based on three categories: directing attention, reflection, and building metacognitive knowledge. Control over learning begins from a conscious direction (attention) to language input and the learning process by the learner. Conscious reflection on the learning process at appropriate moments is also an important element for autonomous learning, because learners can act upon the results or discovery of their reflection.

Building metacognitive knowledge plays another important role in control over the cognitive process. Benson argues that the development of language awareness, as a result of conscious reflection, involves internally derived implicit knowledge of language and learning and externally derived explicit knowledge that learners acquire through formal or informal learning.

The third level, the control over learning content, is discussed in relation to

social and political domains of learning, such as an educational environment or curriculum. If students desire to control content, teachers must create space in which such control can be exercised. Developing a self-access system, providing extra-curricular activities and providing project work are some of the examples.

Although control over content has motivational implications to the learners, it seems to be something beyond a students' control in a classroom situation for the students of the present study. However, if the students reach the appropriate level of English proficiency, providing a wider range of resources, such as a self-access computer programmes, self-access reading materials, the introduction of an internet-based language programme and activities such as research and presentation work, may become effective autonomy supports.

I have examined several concepts of autonomy and autonomy support. Although the viewpoints are different, there seems to be two common aspects required for successful autonomy support; support for raising metacognitive awareness of language and learning and support for acquiring learning strategies. In the next section, instruction of learning strategies as autonomy support is explored.

3.5. Instruction of learning strategies as autonomy support

3.5.1. Several conceptual frameworks of learning strategies

In an attempt to support learner autonomy, previous research has focused on the importance of teaching strategies. Nunan (1996) proposes that some degree of autonomy can be fostered by systematically incorporating strategy training into the learning process. Based on the investigation of thirty undergraduate students undertaking English for Academic Purposes, he demonstrated the effectiveness of encouraging learners to self-monitor and self-evaluate their own learning autonomy. He found that autonomy is enhanced when students are provided with opportunities to evaluate their own progress, when students are encouraged to find their own language data and create their own learning task, when learners are encouraged to self-monitor and self-assess, and when students are given opportunities to select content and learning tasks. Nunan (1996) stresses the importance of training learners in techniques on self-assessment, ongoing monitoring, self-evaluation and reflection as follows:

> Once again, the teacher should not assume that learners have these skills at the beginning of the learning process, nor that all learners will appreciate the potential value of self-monitoring and reflection. However, during the course of instruction, they will be provided with opportunities for engaging in self-monitoring activities and using these as a way of developing their language skills, as well as their sensitivity to the learning process (p. 24).

This quote is very encouraging for the present study, because most of my students are assumed not to have these skills when they begin the course. By the end of the course, students are expected to be proficient in effective learning strategy training, development of language proficiency, as well as learner development.

The effectiveness of strategy-based instruction on learner development is also claimed by Cohen (1998). He postulates that students should be provided with the necessary tools to:

1. Self-diagnose their strengths and weaknesses in language learning,
2. Become aware of what helps them learn the language they are studying most efficiently,
3. Develop a broad range of problem-solving skills,
4. Experiment with both familiar and unfamiliar learning strategies,
5. Make decisions about how to approach a language task,
6. Monitor and self-evaluate their performance, and
7. Transfer successful strategies to new learning contexts (p. 66).

For the above purposes, Cohen proposes strategies-based instruction (SBI) for the classroom strategy training. In the SBI classroom strategy training situation, the teachers:

1. Describe, model and provide students with examples of potentially useful

strategies,

2. Elicit additional examples from students based on the students' own learning experiences,
3. Lead small-group/entire-class discussions about strategies (e.g., reflecting on the rationale behind strategy use, planning and approach to a specific activity, and evaluating the effectiveness of chosen strategies),
4. Encourage their students to experiment with a broad range of strategies, and
5. Integrate strategies into everyday class materials, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice (p. 81).

An interesting feature of Cohen's strategies for instruction is that they are designed to be well embedded in actual classroom activities. Cohen's SBI focuses on the two beneficial aspects of in-class strategies training. Firstly, students are able to experience the advantages of strategies to the learning and use of the language while they are studying. Secondly, students have opportunities to share their preferred strategies with other students in the class and increase their strategy repertoires.

A useful classification in learning strategies was proposed by Williams and Burden (1997). They divided learning strategies into two broad categories: cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies are

defined as mental processes directly concerned with the processing of information to learn. For example, obtaining information, storing it, retrieving it, and using it. Metacognitive strategies are operated when learners step outside their learning process and look at it from the outside. These strategies include "awareness of what one is doing and the strategies one is employing, as well as knowledge about the actual process of learning" (p. 148).

Williams and Burden identified metacognitive strategies as of particular importance, because metacognitive strategies involve an ability to employ cognitive strategies intelligently. They stress that metacognitive awareness is a necessary step to regulate learning.

The beneficial aspect of metacognitive strategy use on autonomous learning is also stressed by Murphy, Jin, and Li-Chi (2004). In his investigation, students were asked to reflect on their own experiences of language learning. This language learning history (LLH) involves events, desires, decisions, strategies, beliefs, actions and particular perceptions. He contends that writing LLHs make many students more reflective and metacognitive about their learning. Students were observed to construct an understanding of their experience of learning by thinking through the different learning trajectories that students had taken and through re-reading what they were writing. Murphy found that the act of writing about one's LLH enables students to develop more self-regulation in their learning.

In terms of the more detailed classification of strategies, three major research studies are discussed in Wenden (1998), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Chamot and O'Malley, (1994), and Oxford (1990). All of these studies are useful for the present study because they classify learning strategies according to the stages, or phases, of actual learning.

Wenden's (1998) two primary categories of learning strategies are cognitive strategies and self-management strategies. Cognitive strategies are defined as mental steps, or operations, that learners use to process both linguistic and sociolinguistic content (p. 19). These mental steps include:

(1) selecting information from incoming data,

(2) comprehending it,

(3) storing it, and

(4) retrieving it for use.

Self-management strategies are used by learners to oversee and manage their learning. Wenden divided self-management strategies into three primary categories:

(1) planning,

(2) monitoring, and

(3) evaluation.

The first category, *planning,* includes pre-planning and planning-in-action.

Pre-planning occurs when learners preview the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned, then understand the conditions that helps one learn, and arranges for the presence of these conditions. Planning-in-action depends on how well learners progress through the task. Planning-in-action depends on information provided from other self-management strategies – monitoring and evaluation. By utilizing the second category, *monitoring*, students "tune into or become aware of 'on-line' difficulties in processing" (p. 27). After identifying the problem, learners then assess their knowledge and skills to seek the cause. Self-assessment can go on during the learning process as a part of the monitoring strategy. The third category, *evaluation,* involves three mental steps: (1) learners examine the outcome of an attempt to learn, (2) they access the criteria they will use to judge it, and (3) they apply it (p. 28). The focus of evaluation is the outcome of a particular attempt to learn or use a strategy.

One of the interesting features of Wenden's (1998) view of learning strategies is that she describes metacognitive strategies as "self-management strategies". By using this term, she explores the use of these strategies in a more learner-centred and situation-bound manner.

In response to the research on information processing theory, the cognitive model of learning and the observation of their students, more detailed classifications of learning strategies and practical suggestions for learning strategies training were proposed by O'malley and Chamot (1990) and Chamot and O'Malley (1994).

They proposed three broad categories of learning strategies: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social affective strategies.

Metacognitive strategies enable a student to activate or plan for a task, determine how successfully the plan is being executed, and evaluate the success of the learning and the plan after the learning activities have been completed. Metacognitive strategies include planning, monitoring, and evaluation learning activities with a subdivision of categories as follows:

- Planning includes advanced organization, organizational planning, selective attention, and self-management,
- Monitoring includes monitoring comprehension and monitoring production, and
- Evaluating includes self-assessment.

Cognitive strategies are used to manipulate the materials being learned. Cognitive strategies fall into three broad categories: rehearsal, organization, and elaboration strategies. Cognitive strategies are often linked to individual tasks and include numerous elements, such as resourcing, grouping, note-taking, elaboration of prior knowledge, summarizing, deduction, induction, imagery, auditory representation, and making inferences.

Social affective strategies involve the aspect of communication particularly important for language learning. Social affective strategies include questioning

for clarification, cooperation, and self-talk. In cooperative learning, students are able to practice language, complete a task, pool information, solve a problem, and obtain feedback. Self-talk enables students to reduce anxiety by reassuring themselves through inner speech that they will be able to successfully perform the task at hand.

In their Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), Chamot and O'Malley (1994) introduced practical ideas for teaching learning strategies. They proposed five phases of the instructional sequence: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion.

In the preparation phase, teachers develop students' metacognitive awareness and self-knowledge through activities such as:

-Discussions about strategies

-Small group interviews about students' past successful experiences,

-Learning strategy questionnaires, and

-Individual think-aloud interviews in which the student works on a task and describes his/her thoughts.

In the presentation phase, teachers teach the strategy explicitly by:

-Modeling how to use the strategy,

-Giving the strategy a name,

-Explaining to students how the strategy will help them learn, and

-Describing when, how, and for what, kinds of tasks they can use for the

strategy.

In the practice phase, students are provided many opportunities for strategy practice through activities such as:

-Cooperative learning,

-Research projects,

-Developing oral and written reports,

-Analyzing literature, and

-Process writing.

In the evaluation phase, teachers develop students' metacognitive awareness of which strategies work for them and why, through self-evaluation activities such as:

-Discussion,

-Learning logs or journal,

-Checklists of their degree of confidence in using specific strategies,

-Self-efficacy questionnaires, and

-Self-reports telling when they use or do not use a strategy, and why.

In the expansion phase, students are encouraged to transfer strategies to new tasks through activities such as:

-Scaffolding, in which reminders to use a strategy are gradually diminished,

-Praise for the independent use of a strategy,

-Self-reporting, and

-Analysis and discussion of strategies (p. 71, summarized by the author).

Chamot and O'Malley's ideas of learning strategies teaching in CALLA suggest many practical ideas in terms of developing instruction model for the present study. It displays a meaningful combination of theoretical framework with an instructional approach based on the belief that "only by understanding how students learn can teachers learn how to teach" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994, p. V).

The most detailed classification of learning strategies in language learning was proposed by Oxford (1990). Unlike the cognitive and metacognitive distinction made by other researchers mentioned previously, Oxford divided strategies into two categories: direct and indirect strategies.

Direct strategies consist of three groups of strategies: memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies, with subdivided categories as follows:

-Memory strategies include creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing action.

-Cognitive strategies include practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output.

-Compensation strategies include guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.

Indirect strategies are divided into metacognitive, affective, and social strategies,

with detailed subdivisions. Metacognitive strategies are used to control cognition. Affective strategies help learners regulate emotions, motivations and attitudes. Social strategies help learners learn through interactions with others. The detailed subdivisions are described in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Oxford's indirect learning strategies (1990)

Metacognitive strategies	Affective strategies	Social strategies
A. Centering your learning 1. Overviewing and linking with already known material 2. Paying attention 3. Delaying speech production to focus on listening B. Arranging and planning your learning 1. Finding out about language learning 2. Organizing 3. Setting goals and objectives 4. Identifying the purpose of a language task 5. Planning for a language task 6. Seeking practice opportunities C. Evaluating your learning 1. Self-monitoring 2. Self-evaluating	A. Lowering your anxiety 1. Using progressive reflection, deep breathing, or meditation 2. Using music 3. Using laughter B. Encouraging yourself 1. Making positive statements 2. Taking risks wisely 3. Rewarding yourself C. Taking your emotional temperature 1. Listening to your body 2. Using a checklist 3. Writing a language diary 4. Discussing your feelings with someone else	A. Asking questions 1. Asking for clarification or verification 2. Asking for correction B. Cooperating with others 1. Cooperating with peers 2. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language C. Empathizing with others 1. Developing cultural understanding 2. Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

One of the interesting features of Oxford's classification of learning strategies lies in her affective strategies. She tries to encompass various concepts, such as self-esteem, attitude, motivation, anxiety, culture shock, inhibition, risk taking, and tolerance for ambiguity (p. 140). She specifically focuses on the effect of self-esteem on successful language learning, claiming that "the sense of efficacy that underlies self-esteem is reflected in attitudes (mental dispositions, beliefs, or opinions), which influence the learner's motivation to keep trying to learn (p. 141)". Thus, self-encouragement strategies play an important role in improving attitudes and motivations.

Two common features are found for the present study by comparing the three major classifications of learning strategies of Wenden, Chamot, O'Malley, and Oxford. One is the importance of self-monitoring and self-evaluation. These metacognitive strategies should be included in the present study as a useful means of autonomy support. Another common feature is that all classification identify *planning,* a required metacognitive strategy, as an important phase.

For the present study, since I am not sure how effective our students can use this strategy in the planning stage, it is assumed that our students have limited metacognitive strategies and awareness of their learning at the beginning of the course. Thus, it is very difficult to expect students to overview their learning plan effectively.

Some interesting ideas are found in Chamot and O'Malley's CALLA. The use of learning logs, or journals and self-reports, may play a positive role in enhancing students motivation and autonomy. In addition, self-efficacy questionnaires would promote students motivation positively. In the same manner, Oxford's emphasis on the effect of self-esteem on successful learning is useful to the present study.

I have explored the various concepts of the instruction of learning strategies. Some of the identified aspects are found to be meaningful to the present study. In the next section, the practical ideas of strategy training as autonomy support in the various instruction settings are examined.

3.5.2. Practical ideas for strategy training as autonomy support

Many attempts have been made to instruct learning strategies to students to help them become autonomous learners. Although the learning situations vary from classroom instruction to self-access, research into those attempts has implications for the present study, presenting the possibility of their application.

Guided journals

To investigate the effect of strategy training on the ability of students to reflect on, and monitor, their own learning process, Nunan, Lai, and Keobke (1999) conducted a twelve-week project using guided journals as a training strategy tool.

The language course students took part in was designed to help them reflect on their own learning, develop their knowledge of and ability to apply learning strategies, assess their own progress, and apply their language skills beyond the classroom. The language course consists of a variety of different modes, including their entire class work, individualized learning, co-operative learning, pair and group work, self-access learning, and learning beyond the classroom. At the end of each week, students were asked to complete journals, including the following sentence starters:

- This week I studied:
- This week I learned:
- This week I used my English in these places:
- This week I spoke English with these people:
- This week I made these mistakes:
- My difficulties are:
- I would like to know:
- I would like help with:
- My learning and practicing plans for next week are: (p. 72).

From the data of the project, Nunan et al. (1999) found that opportunities for self-monitoring, self-assessing, and strategy development have demonstrated four major positive effects on increased learners' control of their learning process: (1) they gradually shifted from a linguistic focus to a more "communicative" and applied focus, (2) they tended to adopt a more "process-oriented" approach, rather than a "product-oriented" approach to language learning, (3) they began

to take greater control of their own learning processes, with more emphasis on the process, rather than merely the content of learning, and (4) they began to see the value of the English courses for their subjects and began to seek and grasp opportunities to deploy their English (pp. 72–73).

The use of guided journals as autonomy support seems to have beneficial aspects to help students become more aware and take control over their process of learning. One of the beneficial features of guided journals for the students in the present study is that the beginning of the sentences are already set and written. For the students who have limited metacognitive knowledge and skills, this will make the task easier for them.

A guided learner diary and self-report questionnaire

Concurrent to the above study, Nunan, Lai, and Keobke (1999) conducted a thirteen-week project using a self-report questionnaire to determine the effect of guided reflection on the development of learners' capacity for self-directing their learning process. In addition to a guided journal, students were asked to write a guided learner diary to record their personal reactions to the learning activity, the approach adopted for the learning, the outcome of the learning, and suggestions for the future to take.

In addition, students were asked to write a self-report questionnaire aimed to raise learners' awareness in the areas of: the self-perception of language skills,

attitudes and views towards language skills, the self-diagnosed habits of language skills, the relative strengths and weaknesses in language skills, the self-perceived learning needs, and the readiness to conduct self-directed learning in improving language skills. Nunan et al. investigated the effect of learner training on a learners' control over their learning process. Data obtained by a guided learner diary, a self-reporting questionnaire, and a guided journal demonstrating an increased selection of a range of materials, an enhanced ability in setting relevant learning objectives for specific materials, a more precise specification of problems and corresponding strategies, and a more in-depth self-assessment.

Learning strategy training tools such as a guided learner diary and a self-reporting questionnaire, as well as a guided journal, demonstrates the possibility that students begin to develop the necessary skills to become more autonomous learners in the course of instruction.

Counselling

Language counselling is identified as a useful process for learner development for autonomy by Kelly (1996). In a self-access setting, language counselling has been demonstrated to play an important role in helping learners develop learning strategy awareness, language awareness, and learner self-management. At the Centre for Individual Language Learning (CILL) project in Singapore, counselling assistance became particularly instrumental when a learner

embarked on a project. The start-up consultation between the learner and a counsellor includes:

1. Review of the purpose of the project option (how it fits into the learner's academic programme),
2. Overview of the CILL project pathway, using the flowchart,
3. Needs analysis, goal-setting, completing a learning contract and anticipation final assessment,
4. Individual programme planning, and
5. Project record-keeping (learner log sheets and other working documents) (pp. 100–101).

In addition to the start-up consultation, many opportunities for language counselling assistance are required after learners begin their programme. Kelly found that a range of helping behaviours by a counsellor such as affirmation, encouragement, guidance, suggestion, direct tutoring, humor, and storytelling is required, because learners frequently lose sight of their original goals, become confused, lose motivation, and seek feedback on their work in progress. To elicit learner choice and insight at every stage of the learner's individual learning cycle, language counselling needs to be conducted in a non-intrusive manner and managed in respectful non-verbal ways: not staring, allowing for pauses, using an 'inquiring' tone, creating space for learner self-expression and showing interest in personal disclosure by the learner. Counselling can illuminate aspects of personal experience that, without dialogue, may not become conscious or meaningful (p. 105).

The role of the autobiography used for counselling in fostering learning and reflective thinking is examined by Karlsson and Kjisik (2007). Their attempts are included in the highly systematically organized self-access programme known as Autonomous Learning Modules (ALMS) at the Language Centre of Helsinki University in Finland.

Although it is self-directed, the fourteen week ALMS course is a credit bearing course and an alternative to an 80-hour classroom course and involves 60 hours of contact with teachers and counsellors per student (Benson, 2001). In the beginning of the course, students take a compulsory six-hour learner awareness session in a group meeting of about 20 students. In this session, the students discuss their learning history, learning styles and strategies, and personal motivation and needs. In the second phase of the course, students plan their programmes, form partnerships, or groups, and sign-up for a range of skill support groups, timetabled according to student demand. Students are also introduced to the idea of keeping a log, which serves as a record of work for their final assessment. Students are then asked to write a reflection text (autobiography) between the opening sessions and their first individual counselling meeting.

During the term, students participate in three compulsory counselling sessions. In the first session, the focus is on what they understand by autonomous

learning and how they are realizing it in practice. The discussion also includes personal objectives and goals, where adjustments can be made to learning contracts. In the second session, the focus is placed on the students' progress on the basis of entries in the logs. In the final counselling session at the end of the term, students are expected to illustrate what they have achieved during the course and how they have developed as a language learner. Students' portfolio of work, logs and self-evaluation is discussed. Students are awarded their credits if they have fulfilled their initially agreed upon plan and objectives.

Karlsson and Kjisik (2007) emphasized the beneficial aspect of the counselling format of ALMS (students writing free-form reflection texts and sharing them with the counsellor). They found that writing a reflective language learning history makes them more aware of their background, its complexity and influence on their present learning. They consider reflection as a process. Through a series of counselling sessions, they found that their reflection changes and develops in the very act of conducting it. They observed that many students move from anecdotal to analytical ways of looking at themselves and their experiences as they go through the programme.

Both the Kelly and Karlsson and Kajisik's studies demonstrate that counselling has the potential to become a powerful tool to assist students in developing an awareness of language, learning and learner self-management. Although the present study is not organized as self-access, the elements of counselling can be

incorporated, especially for those who have particular difficulties in learning. For example, having a counselling session for students who have problems seems to be promising. Karlsson and Kjisik's ALMS provide meaningful ideas for classroom instruction, because this programme covers a great range of ideas of learning strategy instruction, such as a learning awareness session (explicit teaching of learning strategy), making partnerships or groups (social strategies), offering skill support groups (cognitive strategies), and keeping a log (self-management strategy), autobiography and self-evaluation (metacognitive strategy).

Among these ideas, making support groups and writing an autobiography will be incorporated into the present study. Kelly's study reminds me of the important requirement of teachers, that is, teachers have to possess a "good counselling manner" to elicit students' insight, rather than direct instruction to make students reflect on their learning.

I have examined several practical ideas for strategy training as autonomy support and found that many aspects are useful for the present study. In the next section, L2 motivational teaching practice, based on theories of educational psychology, is examined.

3.6. Motivational teaching practice based on theories of educational psychology

In the previous section, I examined various concepts and practical ideas in learner autonomy and the instruction of learning strategies. Several aspects still need to be investigated and incorporated in the teaching and learning practice of the present study. These include psychological aspects such as attribution, self-efficacy, self-confidence, goal-orientedness, and an issue of rewards. These aspects have been relatively less focused on in the field of SLA research.

In the field of L2 motivation research, Dörnyei (2001b) proposed a comprehensive framework of motivational teaching practice with a theoretical base of educational psychology. In this section, Dörnyei's motivational teaching practice and its psychological validity and implication to the present study are discussed. Dörnyei's model of motivational teaching practice was specifically developed for an educational application, emphasizing its comprehensiveness. Key elements in the process-oriented organization include creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. These four elements are linked in the cyclical order, making it one process. Each element is examined, focusing on its psychological validity.

Creating the basic motivational condition

This element consists of three motivational conditions: appropriate teacher

behaviours and a good relationship with the students, a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms. In a safe and supportive classroom, students feel comfortable taking risks, because they know they will not be embarrassed if they make a mistake. This point is very meaningful to the present study, because it is often observed that students who have limited proficiency without confidence in English hesitate in asking questions during the class feeling that "I can't ask this kind of very basic question because other students think I am stupid". However, a question raised by a student is usually instructive to other students. Thus, at the beginning of the course, it should be made clear that asking questions and making mistakes are welcome, because they would become a useful learning resource for other students.

The other point is that a cohesive learner group with an appropriate group norm is meaningful, because in a group, students can provide mutual support. For example, in-class class tests can be marked with a feedback message by a partner or students can exchange their suggestions for learning strategies in a group. It is often observed that students ask questions to the person next to them. By applying this method, they can teach each other in a class. In order to promote inter-member relationships, Dörnyei (2001b) suggests several ideas such as "ice-breaking activities" at the beginning of a new course, project work, preparing group reports, problem-solving activities, and small group "fun" competitions.

Generating initial motivation

Conditions supporting this element include enhancing the learner's L2-related values and attitudes, increasing the learners' expectancy of success, increasing the learners' goal-orientedness, making the teaching materials relevant for the learners, and creating realistic learner beliefs. Among these conditions, increasing the learners' expectancy of success and increasing the learners' goal-orientedness seem to have a particular value to the present study.

Firstly, increasing the learners' expectancy of success is based on the *expectancy-value theory* of educational psychology. It suggests that increasing students' expectations of success by consciously arranging the conditions in a way that puts the learner in more positive or optimistic mood, motivates students to learn. Apart from the obvious prerequisite, that students should be offered an appropriate level of tasks, there are several methods for achieving heightened success expectations in this element. They include the provision of sufficient preparation, offer assistance, letting students help each other, and making the success criteria as clear as possible.

These methods are very useful for the present study, particularly in the test phase, because if students know what to do to obtain better marks on a test, motivation to learn will be enhanced. "If the success criteria involves an assessment of the students' achievement, it is useful for them to know the exact

format of the test (i.e., length, type of questions/items), the specific content areas that will be covered and the evaluation criteria. Past tests and papers can give realistic examples of what is to be expected (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 58)." In order to make students work harder, teachers tend not to make tests "easy" for students. However, for the students who have limited learning skills, proficiency, and motivation, what is most important is "letting them try to work," rather than "letting them try harder". In this sense, showing sample tests or even telling them the points they will be asked in a specific area, may help heighten their success expectations.

Secondly, increasing learners' goal-orientedness is supported by the *goal theory* of educational psychology. Setting clear goals is expected to help student's direct attention and effort towards goal-relevant activities, regulate the amount of effort, encourage persistence until the goal is accomplished, and promote the search for relevant action plans or task strategies (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 62).

For the present study, making a class goal such as "having all the class participants be awarded a credit" or an individual goal such as "getting 60 marks out of 100 on the class test" is considered. In the present study, how goal-setting affects students' performance or motivation should be closely observed.

Maintaining and protecting motivation

It is a natural tendency among students to lose sight of the goal, get tired or

bored of an activity, and have different activities with higher priority. Motivation requires ongoing maintenance and protection. This element has eight powerful executive motivational areas: making learning stimulating and enjoyable, presenting tasks in a motivating way, setting specific learner goals, protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence, allowing learners to maintain a positive social image, promoting cooperation among learners, creating learner autonomy, and promoting self-motivating strategies. Among these eight areas, protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence and promoting self-motivating strategies are examined here.

Protecting learners' self-esteem and increasing their confidence concerns a crucial aspect of motivational teaching practice. Self-confidence is closely related to concepts such as self-esteem or self-efficacy. One of the ways to build students' confidence is to provide the experience of success. In order to provide learners with regular experiences of success, several ideas are suggested, such as providing multiple opportunities for success in the class, adjusting the difficulty level of the tasks to the students' abilities, counterbalancing demanding tasks with manageable ones, and designing tests that focus on what learners can, rather than what they cannot, do.

These suggestions are particularly meaningful to the class test phase in the present study. The key issue is to provide students with *regular* experiences of success. For the students to have strong self-efficacy, the instruction model in the

present study should provide continuous opportunities of successful results, for example, a class test in every class period. Another way of building learners' confidence suggested in this unit is to provide regular encouragement. Teachers should draw students' attention to their strengths and abilities. This can be executed in the form of written encouraging comments when class tests are marked and returned to the students.

Promoting self-motivating learner strategies is also examined. Citing Ushioda's comment (1996), 'After all, the appropriate question no longer seems to be how can we motivate our learners? But how can we help learners to motivate themselves?' (p. 2), Dörnyei (2001b) proposed five sets of self-motivating strategies:

1. Commitment control strategies
2. Metacognitive control strategies
3. Satiation control strategies
4. Emotion control strategies
5. Environmental control strategies (p. 110).

Commitment control strategies include more specific suggestions, such as keeping in mind favorable expectancies or positive incentives and rewards, and focusing on what would happen if the original intention failed. *Metacognitive control strategies* include suggestions such as giving oneself regular self-reminders of the deadline, intentionally ignoring attractive alternatives or irrelevant aspects, identifying recurring distractions and developing defensive

routines, cutting short any purposeless or counterproductive procrastination, using starter rituals to get into focus, and focusing on the first steps to take. *Satiation control strategies* are intended to avoid getting bored in conducting the task. *Emotion control strategies* help students manage the negative emotions, such as anxiety, fear, or hopelessness, and to generate positive emotions. Some of the strategies include self-affirmation, constructive positive narratives of events, and self-encouragement by self-talk. *Environment control strategies* include eliminating environmental sources of interference or temptation, arranging meetings with the explicit purpose of getting the work started, and making a promise or a public commitment.

For the present study, it may be useful to organize the session to share some self-motivating strategies among students. In addition, providing students with time and opportunities to record and calculate their scores on class tests or announcing a test schedule and letting them plan their study schedule could be indirect suggestions to encourage using metacognitive strategies for self-management.

Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

This element consists of four conditions: promoting motivational attributions, providing motivational feedback, increasing learner satisfaction, and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner. These four conditions are closely related to psychological aspects, such as attribution, self-efficacy, and issues of

rewards.

The first condition, promoting motivational attributions, is based on the attribution theory of educational psychology. It is important to encourage students' effort attributions. This is particularly meaningful to the present study, because most of the students in the class have experienced repeated failures in learning English over the past six years, constructing negative attributions such as "I cannot be successful in learning English because I do not have an ability to do it". Hence, some of the students have gained learned helplessness.

It is desirable to make a student believe that higher levels of effort generate a higher possibility for success. Several suggestions are made in this element to encourage effort attributions, such as providing effort feedback, refusing to accept ability attributions, model effort-outcome linkages, encouraging learners to offer effort explanations, and making effort and perseverance a class norm.

Among these suggestions, providing effort feedback seems to be of particular importance to the present study. If students experience failure on a test, the emphasis in the feedback should be on low effort. However, some students may feel that they failed, regardless of their hard work. This is often observed among students with limited English proficiency, because they simply do not know how and what to learn. In this case, skills and strategies should be included in the feedback, but the test itself should be designed to reflect the effort-outcome

relationship properly.

Another condition, providing motivational feedback, is related to the previous condition, but with more emphasis placed on raising self-confidence. Feedback should be made to promote positive self-concept and self-confidence. Feedback should include information such as students' strengths, achievements, progress and attitudes. They should promote the students to constructively reflect on areas that need improvement and identify things that they can do to increase the effectiveness of their learning. Motivational feedback is not "controlling feedback", which involves comparing students' scores with those of others or with the average. Instead, information feedback involves comparing the score to the students' previous achievements.

The third condition, increasing learner satisfaction, is related to the concept of self-efficacy or sense of achievement, which plays an important role in motivation. To increase learner satisfaction, several ideas are suggested, including monitoring student accomplishments and progress, taking time to celebrate any victory, making student progress tangible by encouraging the production of visual records, and providing a reinforcing event for positive closure at the end of significant units of learning. Increasing student satisfaction is important for the students in the present study, because many students have repeatedly experienced unsatisfying results. Providing opportunities for students to recognize their progress, for example, by incorporating graphs illustrating

their increasing trend of marks in class tests can be incorporated in the present study.

The fourth condition, offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner, is a rather controversial issue. Many psychologists believe that offering rewards has damaging effects on motivation. However, Dörnyie (2001b) considers that rewards can constitute powerful motivational tools. To make rewards motivational, a teacher can make sure that the reward has some kind of lasting visual representation (e.g., certificate or badge), offering rewards to show the teacher's appreciation after students have completed the task and making sure that students do not get too preoccupied with the reward.

When offering grades, several ideas are suggested, such as making sure the rating system is absolutely transparent, involving students' in the ongoing process of evaluation during the course, rather than only relying on the results of one or two tests.

I am supportive of offering rewards. For the instruction model in the present study, drawing special pictures on the test sheet to praise a student getting good marks can be considered a tangible reward. It is desirable to make rewards have a function in reinforcing a student's sense of achievement, self-efficacy, or self-confidence. In addition, in offering grades, two devices are designed. Firstly, explaining the evaluation system clearly at the beginning of the course and

reminding the students often. Secondly, making students manage their grades. In other words, continuously encouraging students to build up their scores to get credit for better grades. The use of grades as a tool makes students responsible for their own learning.

I have examined Dörnyei's comprehensive framework of motivational teaching practice based on several important aspects of educational psychology and its adaptability to the present study. In the next section, the application of self-determined theory to language learning is investigated.

3.7. Application of self-determination theory (SDT) in language learning

Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), described in Chapter 2, has influenced the motivation research in language learning. The fundamental concept of self-determination theory, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, was investigated by Brown (1994). He emphasized the importance of intrinsic motivation in the L2 classroom, claiming that the traditional school settings focused too much on extrinsic motivation. Unlike the concept of extrinsic versus intrinsic dichotomy, self-determination theory enables researchers and teachers to capture motivation as a comprehensive developmental process of different types and levels of motivation. Understanding motivation as a developmental process generates the great possibility of offering appropriate support in the classroom situation.

Hiromori (2006) claims that dividing motivation into several sequential stages enables teachers to focus more on the individual differences of the learners, so that teachers can try to determine the appropriate amount of support to guide learners in a more autonomous direction. Self-determination theory, focusing on the developmental process of motivation, according to different levels and types of self-regulation, offers great insights in developing appropriate support for students.

A series of explicit works applying self-determination theory to L2 have been conducted by Noels or Noels and her associates (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000 ; Noels 2001, 2003, 2009). There are four major findings particularly meaningful to the present study. The first finding is the correlation between teachers' behaviours and students' generalized feeling of autonomy and competence in learning language (Noels, 2001). The results suggest that the more the teacher was perceived as controlling, the less the students felt they were learning the language because it was fun or because it was valuable to them. The results also illustrate that the more teachers were perceived as being actively involved in students' learning, by providing informative praise and encouragement to the students for their effort, the more the students felt competent in learning the language.

The second finding is the correlation between the perceptions of competence and

the intrinsic and extrinsic reasons. Greater perceptions of competence were found to correspond with the feeling that they were learning the language because it was fun, as well as the various extrinsic reasons (Noels, 2001).

The third finding is about intrinsic motivation. Noels et al. (2000) found that students who naturally enjoy the feeling of learning an L2 may not necessarily feel personally involved in the learning process, claiming that students have to feel that learning the language is personally important for them for sustained learning. In other words, for sustained learning, it is necessary for students to have internalized reasons for L2 learning by an autonomy supportive environment where feedback enhances their sense of competence in the learning task.

The fourth finding is that the increased perception of freedom of choice and perceived competence are linked to more self-determined forms of motivation. In a similar manner, one may feel their freedom of choice, or competence, is irrelevant if an external, practical reward dictates that an L2 be learned, as in the case of external regulation (Noels et al., 2000). In a more recent study of learners of Chinese, Comanaru and Noels (2009) found that the more learners felt they were learning Chinese, because it was personally meaningful and fun, the more they engaged in the learning process, arguing that self-determined orientation is indirectly important for achievement in the language classroom.

L2 motivation research applying the self-determination theory reported by Noels generally supports the outcome of other research in the field of SLA research, such as learner autonomy or language learning strategies. It can be summarized that for successful and sustained learning, well-internalized reasons, whether they are intrinsic or extrinsic, the sense of competence and freedom of choice are required and fostered by an autonomy supportive environment. These findings provide a number of meaningful suggestions for the present study in developing the instruction model with learner autonomy support. For example, giving informative praises and encouragement to let students feel competent in learning, to provide opportunities to select suitable learning strategies among many strategies, and not to offer external rewards in a controlling manner, can be incorporated into the model of instruction for the present study.

In the Japanese university setting, Hiromori (2006) conducted research focusing on the three basic psychological needs in the internalization of regulation in self-determination theory: relatedness, competence, and autonomy (see 2.2.5.). One part of the study investigated how these three needs affect motivation in a university English learning classroom. The results indicated that the three needs are correlated and the perception of competence and relatedness positively affect on motivation. Another part of the study examined the effect of instruction, intending to satisfy the three needs on a students' motivation. His instruction included self-monitoring writing to support autonomy, information feedback to enhance self-efficacy, and pair and group work to satisfy the perception of

relatedness.

The results indicated several interesting findings. Firstly, the strong correlation between the increased intrinsic motivation and competence was found in a group of previously less motivated students. In the same manner, the strong correlation between increased motivation and relatedness was located for the same group. These results suggest that instruction fostering students' sense of efficacy and focusing on a positive relationship is particularly important for the less motivated students. Secondly, it was found that intrinsically motivated students tend to have a stronger sense of efficacy and achievement than students motivated by external elements, such as pressure or rewards.

This suggests that students who study because learning is fun, or because it is enjoyable to understand, tend to have a greater sense of achievement. The third finding is that the effect of relatedness on motivation was greater in the group of less motivated students. This indicates that the satisfaction of relatedness has a possibility to function negatively in raising and sustaining motivation on previously highly motivated students. Hiromori's finding is very useful for the present study, because the students in the present study are generally less motivated, and they are in the similar EFL setting. For these students, it is suggested that instruction should be designed to enhance students' sense of efficacy or achievement. In addition, a good teacher-student relationship and peer support are expected to be important elements for classroom language

instruction.

3.8. Summary of Chapter 3

In this chapter, I examined motivation as a process from the viewpoint of language learning. As I stated in the introduction of the present thesis, there are multiple approaches of motivation research in the field of language learning. After the review of the paradigm shift in L2 motivation research, I examined the following research areas: clarifying the implication of each approach to the present study, as well as examining the research outcome of L2 motivation research focusing on a process of learning and motivation, the concepts of learner autonomy in SLA, the concepts of learning strategies in SLA, motivational teaching practices based on the theories of educational psychology in L2 motivation research, and the application of SDT in L2 motivation research.

In the second section after the introduction, the paradigm shift from the traditional concept of integrative/instrumental motivational orientation to *L2 Motivational Self System* has been investigated. I proposed the application of the *L2 Motivational Self System* to the present study within the SDT conceptual framework.

In the third section, a number of process oriented approaches of motivation were examined. Some of the research revealed that motivational development includes

the negative and positive directions of development. This implies that maintaining motivation is important.

In the fourth section, the concept of learner autonomy and autonomy support are examined. Although the viewpoints in the concept of learner autonomy differ, two common aspects required for successful autonomy support are identified: support for raising the metacognitive awareness of language and learning and the support for acquiring learning strategies.

In the fifth section, instruction of learning strategies is discussed. A number of strategy training frameworks and the practical ideas of strategy training as autonomy support are suggested. A variety of aspects in cognitive and metacognitive strategies demonstrated their usefulness to the present study.

In the sixth section, motivational teaching practices based on educational psychology in the field of L2 motivational research were examined. Specific emphasis of motivational teaching practice mentioned here is on psychological aspects, such as attribution, self-efficacy, self-confidence, goal-orientedness, and rewards. The practical application of the findings of educational psychology to classroom instruction unfolded. Implications and applications of this motivational teaching practice to the present study were investigated and confirmed.

In the seventh section, the application of self-determination theory (SDT) to motivation research in the field of language learning was examined. The usefulness of using the SDT framework for the present study was confirmed.

In the next chapter, methodology of the present study will be discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

The purpose of the study was to explore how different types of teacher support (learner autonomy support) relate to the development of student motivation in a Japanese university EFL classroom. In order to investigate this, I conducted a longitudinal classroom-based study, involving both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The study is best described as 'exploratory practice' as I focused on my own students with a view towards improving my own teaching. This chapter first explains the background of the study, describing educational and socio-cultural contexts of EFL classes in Japanese universities as well as my own teaching context before providing a rationale for the exploratory nature of the study. This is followed by the description of the study itself, which involves introducing the research participants, explaining the research process, and describing the data collection and data analysis.

4.2. Background of the study

4.2.1. Japanese EFL: Educational and socio-cultural context

The present study was conducted in the context of teaching an EFL class at a Japanese university. Before describing the particular teaching situation, this section provides brief background information on the educational and socio-cultural context of Japanese EFL. Among the numerous issues and problems surrounding Japanese university EFL, the issue of students' academic readiness for the university is discussed here as it is closely related to the teaching context under study.

One of the most challenging and unavoidable problems at my university is the low level of academic readiness of students who go on to tertiary education, which has become increasingly evident with the increase of the percentage of students enrolling in universities (58.7%; Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology, 2011) as well as the increase in the number of universities and the increased enrolment quota approved by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (Kondo, 2009). Public universities, which have a relatively longer history and tradition in metropolitan areas, tend to attract more academically oriented students and are thus able to maintain a certain academic level. Meanwhile, private universities with a relatively short history, especially in rural areas, are less likely to attract students with higher academic readiness. This situation has created bipolarization between universities attracting many students and those unable to fill the enrolment quota (Kondo, 2009). Kondo's research indicates that 47% of private universities failed to fill their quota in 2008. In addition, only the top 21

universities, located primarily in metropolitan areas, had a greater number of applicants than the remaining 546 private universities in 2008.

This bipolarization leads many private universities that are unable to select students and face financial difficulties to create various devices for securing the number of students they need. Such devices include the admission office's entrance examination, admission based on a recommendation from the high school attended, or the creation of special entrance examinations for athletes and musically talented students, among others. These entrance examinations usually do not require academic examinations. According to Hasegawa (2011), universities which fail to fulfil the quota admit more than 70% of students via non-academic examination. Thus, more than 70% of students in these universities lack a certain academic level or academic readiness for university study. Hasegawa (2011) further demonstrates that even universities fulfilling a quota of 100% or greater admit more than 50% of students through non-academic examinations. This is a serious problem as teachers in these universities have to deal with students with a lower academic readiness than before. Chujo and Nishigaki (2007) point out that the largest issue facing many universities is not the decrease in "good" students, but the difficulty of conducting normal university classes caused by the wider range of basic academic skills among students in the same faculty at the same university.

Focusing on English proficiency, Chujo and Nishigaki's (2007) study indicates

that, among 50 university students, only 8% of the students had proficiency equivalent to the high school graduate level, 47.8% had a proficiency level equivalent to the junior high school level, and the remaining 44.2% did not even reach the junior high school level. Chujo and Nishigaki mention that "realistically, the learning goal of these university students for EFL should be to achieve the high school graduate level" (p. 48, translated by the author). This situation indicates the difficulty of achieving the EFL proficiency high enough to use English in the working environment as set by Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in 2003.

Insufficient academic readiness among university students admitted without completing an English exam creates serious problems and difficulties not only for teachers, but also for students. When they start job-hunting, they begin to realise the disadvantages associated with the lack of academic readiness. These students face the reality that most companies require academic examinations, including English proficiency tests. Students feel that they are not able to pass such tests because they entered universities without being prepared (Hasegawa, 2011). The high unemployment rate of university graduates cannot be attributed only to university EFL education. However, it is the university's responsibility to prepare those students with insufficient academic readiness for EFL studies to enter the job market and increase their job prospects.

4.2.2. My teaching context and motivation for the research

I have been teaching at universities for more than 20 years, including a private university for the past 16 years—namely, Kanagawa University located in Kanagawa prefecture, a metropolitan area. During the past 16 years, I have noticed a change in students entering the university in terms of academic readiness. In my institution, the percentage of student admissions without an academic exam has gradually increased to nearly 50%. This situation is similar to the findings in the study by Chujo and Nishigaki (2007, see 4.2.1.), in which only a small number of students had sufficient English proficiency to study university-level English EFL. In my institution, the data from the students' placement test conducted by the university indicate that only 14% of first-year students have a high school graduate level (they are allocated to the advanced level) while 35.8% have a junior high school graduate level (intermediate course). The remaining 50% of students do not reach the junior high school level (introductory level and basic level).

I am currently teaching classes at both the advanced and introductory levels. Advanced-level students generally demonstrate clear learning goals and high motivation. These classes focus on reading, interpreting, and discussing current international affairs published in English newspapers and international broadcasting. Students are actively involved in the class, attend classes regularly, and even take TOEFL and TOEIC tests voluntarily. They join study abroad

programs and international internship programs provided by the university, and some of them return to my class after their international experiences. These students do not seem to have problems in terms of learning and motivation.

On the other hand, for students at the introductory level, the situation is quite different. Most students in this class entered the university without taking an English exam. They confess that they did not develop effective study habits at home during high school. When asked how they received credits to graduate from high school, one student said, "In the class, the teacher told the Japanese translation of the text and I wrote that down. The teacher said that test would contain only Japanese translations of the English text that she indicated, so I memorised all the Japanese translations and wrote them in the test. I usually received good enough grades." Thus, what the student learned was not English, but actually Japanese. These students have repeated experiences of failure in English learning itself, so they have developed negative feelings towards English and English learning.

Analysing the questionnaire of the pilot study, I learned that these students generally wish or aspire to gain proficiency in English or become fluent in speaking English regardless of insufficient motivation and negative feeling towards learning English. It seems that their wish does not motivate them to actually learn English. In other words, they wish to obtain a successful result but they do not seem to know how to achieve it, nor do they seem to have the will or

sufficient self-regulation to achieve it. Year after year, my experience with these students in my introductory class has increased my motivation to help these students. The aim of my research is to investigate how I can support these students to become autonomous and motivated English learners.

4.3. The type of research

4.3.1. Why exploratory practice

I originally intended to conduct experimental research by comparing two classes with different teaching strategies to evaluate the effectiveness of a set of teaching strategies to support students' autonomy. However, as I proceeded with my research, I found it very difficult to conduct a true experiment because the teaching conditions could not be controlled perfectly in the classroom environment given the many restrictions imposed by my institution. While conducting the study, unexpected problems occurred, such as students' absences from the class. Moreover, I realised that exploratory practice is more appropriate to my type of research because what I really wanted to learn from my study was not the effectiveness of a certain type of teaching strategy applied only to my situation, but rather to understand the ways in which students' motivation develops in the process of teaching. In addition, since teaching practice and students' learning continuously affect one another, it is more beneficial for me to understand the teaching and learning reality to explore the reason why

motivational change occurs in the class.

Allwright (2003), in a discussion of the main proponents of exploratory practice, proposes that the aim of exploratory practice is the development of situational understanding rather than the production of practical solutions to isolated problems, which is often an aim of action research (Nunan, 1989). Allwright (2003) develops this view from his own experience that the type of research aimed at solving a particular problem does not necessarily contribute to the lives of teachers and their learners. According to Allwright (2005), "we were not really trying to get research done in the classroom. We were trying to get pedagogy done in a way that incorporated a research perspective, and which therefore fostered understanding" (p. 356). Allwright (2003) summarises exploratory practice in one sentence as follows:

Exploratory Practice involves practitioners (e.g., preferably teachers *and* learners together) working to understand,

(a) what they want to understand, following own agendas;

(b) not necessarily in order to bring about change;

(c) not primarily by changing;

(d) but by using normal pedagogic practices as investigative tools, so that working for understanding is part of the teaching and learning, not extra to it;

(e) in a way that does not lead to 'burn-out', but that is indefinitely sustainable;

in order to contribute to:

(f) teaching and learning themselves;

(g) professional development, both individual and collective (pp.127–128).

Based on this idea of exploratory practice, I decided to conduct an exploratory practice study to understand the way in which students become motivated in the classroom and how the teacher's support relates to students' motivation.

As the current study constitutes practitioner research using my own classes, my role is both as an "insider" as a classroom teacher and as an "outsider" as a researcher. I describe the struggles and dilemmas concerning these double roles in the section on ethical issues presented later in this chapter.

4.3.2. My view of motivation and the focus of the study

In this study, I focus on the two aspects of motivation: the self-related and developmental natures of motivation. I believe that the expectancy to success or failure and attribution of past learning experiences influence students' future behaviour in learning. More precisely, I am in line with Weiner's (1991) idea that expectancy for success, self-perception of competence, and self-efficacy play an important role in successful learning behaviour and motivation. Concerning the second aspect, I believe that motivation is to be understood as a process. I am also in line with the idea of both Cognitive Evaluation Theory and Social Cognitive Theory in terms of their approach to motivation as process-oriented.

However, I do not agree with cognitive evaluation theorists in terms of the negative effects of rewards on motivation in the process of motivational development. Apart from my disagreement with the concept of rewards, my thinking tends to be in line with cognitive evaluation theorists, such as Ryan and Deci (2002). In particular, I have found their self-determination theory to be useful as a framework for developmental process of motivation. Self-determination theory views the internalization and transformation of external regulation into self-regulation as a continuum rather than as dichotomy between extrinsic or intrinsic motivation. As the present study intends to explore how the teacher's support can help students develop motivation and self-regulatory behaviour, the framework of self-determination with different types of regulation can be a beneficial tool to indicate the degree and nature of development of students' motivation.

Furthermore, as no previous studies have indicated how a person moves from one type of motivation to another through educational intervention, the present longitudinal study explores the ways in which a student experiences motivational change with various types of regulation through learner autonomy-focused instruction, making the study unique in nature and expected to contribute to a deeper understanding of students' motivation.

4.4. Rationale for the research methods used in this study

This section justifies the methodological decisions made related to the present study. The choice of mixed method research is explained, followed by the rationale for a longitudinal study involving questionnaires and observations rather than interviews.

4.4.1. Mixed method research

As previously mentioned, the aim of this exploratory study is to explore how learner autonomy-focused instruction can help students develop motivation to learn English in a Japanese university EFL setting. The mixed-methods approach was adopted to fulfil this aim. The core characteristic of mixed-methods research in the present study includes collecting, analysing, and integrating both qualitative and quantitative data to address the proposed questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). I selected a mixed-methods approach because of the belief that relying merely on quantitative data is not sufficient to explore why and how students develop their motivation. In addition, relying only on the qualitative approach has limitations with respect to the lack of the overall view of and trend in students' motivation in two different groups. Dörnyei (2001) indicates that, "in this design, the participant's own item responses serve as prompts for further open-ended reflection and, at the same time, the coverage of all the items ensures systematicity and comprehensiveness" (p. 244). Therefore, open-ended

questionnaires that allow students to make retrospective comments regarding their reason for selecting particular responses on the closed-ended questionnaires were included at the end of the close-ended survey.

4.4.2. Longitudinal study

The focus of the present study is to investigate and understand the developmental nature of students' motivation. Therefore, the present study adopted a longitudinal rather than cross-sectional approach. In order to understand the change in performance and motivation, it was necessary to collect the data over a longer period. A longitudinal study that explores the influence of different types of regulation through learner autonomy-focused instruction on change in students' motivation has never been conducted before.

4.4.3. Questionnaire

As mentioned in section 4.4.1., both closed-ended and open-ended questionnaires were administered to collect data for understanding the development of students' motivation. I decided to use questionnaire because it allows for assessing constructs that may not be easily observable, such as motivation. Although appropriate items and clear and effective presentation can increase the reliability of self-report questionnaires, the validity of questionnaires has been questioned (Dörnyei, 2001a). Several threats related particularly to the present

study are found in Dörnyei's (2003) lists. These threats include the halo effect, superficiality of answers, unreliable and unmotivated respondents, and fatigue effects (i.e., students may respond inaccurately because of tiredness or boredom). The Halo effect refers to the tendency of overgeneralization. For example, if students like a particular task, they tend to answer that they like "English as a whole," which is not true. Considering the potential of these threats, I believe the questionnaire method is appropriate for the purpose of the present study because such biased data function as an indicator of students' cognitive and metacognitive awareness of learning and motivation. This may be particularly evident in open-ended questionnaires. For example, if students respond to the question superficially or without motivation, it would reflect some character of students' perception and awareness of learning. However, this does not deny the necessity for the careful construction and administration of the questionnaire.

Self-deception is a more serious threat to the validity of data. Self-deception means that students deceive themselves and unconsciously provide a "desirable answer". In order to address this problem, this study conducted a case study with careful observations, matching students' actual performance and answers related to their motivation.

The Pygmalion effect, which suggests that student achievement reflects the expectations of teachers, is a weakness in this study. Pintrich and Schunk (1996) claim that teachers' expectations for students' performances minimally affect

students' achievement because teachers' expectations generally reflect actual student behaviour. Holding positive expectations of students does not seem to raise performance as much as holding negative expectations lowers it. In addition, Pintrich and Schunk (1996) claimed that the teachers' expectations, when appropriate (based on students' performances) and flexible (capable of changing to reflect changes in student performances), may have instructional benefits. In the present study, it is not possible to disregard positive expectations for students. In order to secure the validity as much as possible, the instructor carefully considered conveying positive expectations to all students in both groups. For example, when I told one class that "I am sure you can master this grammatical point if you review your notes before next class," I tried to say the same thing to the other class.

4.4.4. Observations

As previously mentioned, the observation method was adopted to minimize the threat to the validity, especially the threat of self-deception. Observations were conducted in the classroom by the instructor and recorded in written informal form as field notes. Observation is only included in the case study section in order to ensure the validity of students' answers to the questionnaire. Observation (including students talking with the instructor during a class) is also used to investigate the relationship between students' answers to the questionnaire and the actual performance on the class test (including the

attitude towards the participation in the class and effort in the preparation of the class tests). The observational data enable the researchers to see directly what students do without having to rely on what they say they do (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 185). I believe such data can objectify students' answers to the questionnaire and contribute to the deeper understanding of what is happening in students' motivational development.

4.4.5. Decision not to conduct interviews

The interview method has been widely used as a reliable research tool, together with questionnaires (Nunan, 1992). However, in the present study, I intentionally avoided using interviews as a data collection method because of my double role as a teacher and a researcher, the characteristic of participants, students' socio-cultural situation, and the nature of the research focus. As described in the next section (4.5.), the research participants are students with insufficient proficiency, insufficient motivation, and strong negative feelings about learning English. The pilot study revealed two issues: Some students (i.e., those who entered the university without taking an academic entrance examination) have serious problems in terms of academic readiness and attitude in general and students can express their own negative feelings relatively easily in writing when they are given the time and opportunity. If I—a researcher as well as a teacher—interviewed them in a face-to-face situation in which they felt the pressure of me expecting them to be a "good" student, it was expected that

bias would be inevitable as the students know that I am the person who determines their final grade for the subject. Considering this problem and the nature of interview items (e.g., "are you motivated to learn?"), it was expected that students would try to answer in a way that pleased me. As such, it would be likely to be very difficult for students in my class to tell me "I am not motivated at all" in a face-to-face situation. Nunan (1992) points out that the bias inherent in the interview method reflects "the asymmetrical relationship between the participants" (p. 150). In the case of an oral interview, if the interviewer has much more power than the interviewee does, the inequitable relationship between interviewer and interviewee will affect the content of the interview as well as the language used. I believed that it was not possible to overcome this bias in my situation given that I play a powerful role as a teacher or a grade giver.

At the same time, from the socio-cultural perspective, it was assumed that students would not be able to tell me the truth even if they had strong confidence in learning and performance because of the cultural belief which values modesty. Therefore, it was expected that students would express their confidence in a modest manner.

Students' general tendency to experience problems with academic readiness and attitude also prevented me from conducting interviews with them. It was not expected for students with behavioural problems to be willing to participate in

the interview session outside the class session. Based on my classroom experience, students rarely appear in my office to discuss their problems, even when they are asked to come. Considering such conditions, I did not use the interview method, although I understand it would provide supplementary data to the questionnaire.

4.5. Research Participants

The research participants included 40 students (19 in Group A—4 female and 15 male—and 21 in Group B—8 female and 13 male) enrolled in the first year of the Business Management program at Kanagawa University. Students in Group A were placed in the lower introductory level, which is the tenth level among the 12 levels, based on the placement test administered by the university at the end of the first semester. The L2 proficiency of this level is below junior high school level, indicating that most students do not clearly understand the basic construction of an English sentence; for example, most of these students are not able to discern the difference between a complement and an object in a sentence.

The students' socio-cultural background is relatively homogeneous. All of the students in this lower introductory level entered the university without taking an English examination. Some were admitted into Kanagawa University, based on the recommendation of their high schools. Some entered through the admission office's entrance examination that included subjects other than

English (History, Japanese, etc.). Most graduated from non-academically oriented high schools, in which students generally prepare to enter the workforce after high school graduation and only a small part of them continues their studies at universities. Therefore, their curriculum focuses more heavily on practical subjects, such as bookkeeping and computer skills, rather than academic subjects.

The L2 learning history is also relatively homogeneous. Most of these students have experienced failure in acquiring necessary grammatical skills in high school and have developed strong negative feeling towards their own ability to learn English in school. However, the general feeling towards English itself varies among these students. The questionnaire in the pilot study indicates that some feel that they like English regardless of having an inferiority complex toward learning of English.

The students in lower introductory class are also characterised by their insufficient level of academic readiness in terms of their study habits and attitude. It is common to find students who express that they did not develop the habit of reviewing the content they learned or preparing for the next class. In terms of attitude, it is common to find students who are not good at organising materials required for class. Occasionally, some of them tend to lose printed materials, texts, notes, and other required materials.

4.6. Research process and data collection

4.6.1. Research process

In order to explore the ways in which instruction with learner autonomy support can help students develop motivation to learn English in a university EFL class, a longitudinal study incorporating quantitative as well as qualitative analysis was designed. The general structure of the study is summarised as follows (see also Table 4.1.).

Table 4.1. Research design, data collection

Date	Teaching project	Questionnaire	Observation
April 2008- July 2008	Pilot study to ensure data collection methods, teaching strategies, questions	Open and closed-ended questions	Observation of the class
Sept. 2008 Jan. 2008 (13th Week)	Group A (conventional instructions without learner autonomy support) Group B (learner autonomy-focused instructions)	First administration of the questionnaire (4th week) Second administration of the questionnaire (8th week) Third administration of the questionnaire (13th week)	Successful students in Group A (Student A, Student B) Successful students in Group B (Student C, Student D) Unsuccessful students in Group A (Student E, Student F) Unsuccessful students in Group B (Student G, Student H)

Prior to the main study, a pilot study was conducted during the first semester (from April 2008 to July 2008) to examine the validity of the instruments (questionnaires and observation).

The main study commenced in September 2008 and lasted until January 2009. In order to explore the influence of teacher support (learner autonomy support), two different classes were designed: one group with learner autonomy-focused instruction (Group B) and the other group with conventional instruction without learner autonomy support (Group A). The teaching project contained the same contents, materials, and instruction for both Group A and Group B, except for the teaching strategies utilising learner autonomy support. The instruction lasted 13 weeks in addition to the introduction classes.

Preceding the instruction, students in both groups were asked to write their personal learning history with English, including the analysis of their English proficiency. They were also asked to write their reasons for learning English, their preferred learning style, and special requests to the instructor (see Appendix 1). Students wrote all of these reports in Japanese because of their limited proficiency in English writing.

In the first class, a diagnostic grammar test was administered to students in both Group A and Group B (see Appendix 5). This test was designed to make students reflect on their competence in grammatical knowledge as well as to

assess students' metacognitive skills.

Questionnaires with closed and open-ended questions were administered three times throughout the duration of the study. The first questionnaire containing five questions was administered immediately after the fifth class test, four weeks into the course. The second questionnaire containing three questions was administered immediately after the 13th class test, eight weeks into the course. The third questionnaire containing 14 questions was administered immediately after the 16th class test, 13th weeks into the course. The increased number of the questions in the third questionnaire, which was administered at the end of the semester, was designed to make students review and reflect on their learning both in class and at home during the semester. Meanwhile, unstructured observations were conducted during the course and recorded in the form of field notes.

4.6.2. The teaching project: Contents, process, and teacher support

The teaching project in the present study (see Table 4.2.) was conducted with first-year students in the lower introductory course.

Table 4.2. Teaching project

	Group A (conventional instruction)	Group B (learner autonomy-focused instruction)
Class Contents	Class test Grammar instruction Reading practice	Class test Grammar instruction Reading test
Teaching Strategies in forethought phase	Students were recommended to make plans and goals	Reflection of previous learning Strategic planning Goal setting
Teaching strategies in the performance phase	Students were recommended to seek help	Encouraging help-seeking behaviour Encouraging peer support
Teaching strategies in the regulation phase	Students were recommended to record their scores of the tests	Self-reflection using study logs Appropriate attributional feedback Positive reinforcement or rewards were given

The class met twice a week for 90 minutes each session. The focus of the curriculum was to help students develop fundamental English grammar skills and read English based on acquired grammatical knowledge. The choice of contents and texts for the class was up to the instructor. The following is the procedure and class contents of the class provided for both Group A and Group B.

4.6.2.a. The class contents for both Group A and Group B

1. Class test

Students were clearly informed at the beginning of the semester about the evaluation system and the goals that they must achieve to receive credit for the class. The students took short 10-minute tests at the beginning of each class that assessed the knowledge gained from the previous lesson. The tests consisted of five questions asking students to translate Japanese to English utilising the grammar expressions taught in the previous lesson (see Appendix 6). Students were informed that the class test consisted of sentences which they had learned in the previous class, although with slightly altered wording. Students could get up to five points on this test. As the students would take 16 tests in all (once or twice a week for 10 weeks), they could accumulate up to 100 points in total, with the scores on tests 14, 15, and 16 counting twice. After completing the short tests, each student exchanged his/her test with another student, who corrected the test of his/her peer. The test was immediately graded by the instructor and returned to the students in the next class.

The class test was designed for students to gain regular experiences of success to maintain and protect motivation (see Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 163, in Chapter 3). To this end, the class test was administered in every class to enable students to experience the increased possibility of success. In order to make success criteria as clear as possible, students were informed about the exact format of the test and the specific content areas to be covered. This is based on the theoretical principle of expectancy-value theory (Bandura, 1991) which suggests that, if students believe in the probability of success, their motivation is likely to be enhanced (see 2.1.1.).

Although class tests were designed to increase students' expectancy of success, which is considered a part of learner autonomy support, exactly the same format of class test was administered to students in Groups A and B in the same educational environment in order to secure the standard of research ethics for students in Group A (see also 4.9.).

2. Grammar instruction

Grammar instruction introduced and explained grammatical expressions. Students were asked to take notes of the simplified explanation of a grammatical topic in Japanese. They were then asked to translate ten simple Japanese sentences into English using the grammatical knowledge they had just learned. They were informed that five of the ten sentences, with slightly altered wording,

would be included on the test in the next lesson.

3. Reading practice

Students were asked to read one paragraph written in simple English. The focus here was not on being able to translate English into Japanese (because Japanese translation is already written on the next page in the text), but on being able to explain the translation grammatically.

The students also took a series of reading tests based on the assigned textbook. Reading tests were given four times during the course. For the purpose of the present study, the reading tests scores were not included to make the statistical comparison simpler, but some students mentioned the reading tests in the open-ended writing section of the questionnaires.

4.6.2.b. The definition of learner autonomy support used in the present study

The concept of learner autonomy used in the present study closely relates to the framework of self-determination theory. I decided to use this framework (see 2.3.2) as an indicator of students' motivational development. As illustrated in Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2, the types of motivation (i.e., amotivation, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation) and the types of regulation (non-regulation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, integrated regulation, and intrinsic regulation) are situated on the continuum ranging from

non self-determined to self-determined or autonomous learner. The definition of learner autonomy support in this study is the teacher support provided to students to help them develop more self-determined or more autonomous regulation, such as identified regulation rather than introjected regulation.

In order to explore how learner autonomy-focused instruction helps students develop motivation to learn English, different teaching strategies were used with two groups of students at the same proficiency level based on the placement test administered by the institution at the end of the preceding semester (see Table 4.1.). Although the academic content of instruction was the same, one group was given learner autonomy-focused instruction (Group B) and the other group was given conventional instruction without learner autonomy support (Group A). The instruction with and without learner autonomy support is explained in the following sections in relation to theoretical principles, such as the self-regulated learning, self-determination theory, and principles concerning autonomy support previously examined in Chapters 2 and 3.

4.6.2.c. Teaching strategies of learner autonomy-focused instruction for Group B: Strategies and theoretical principles

The instruction for the students in Group B included teaching strategies with learner autonomy support focusing on enhancing self-efficacy, raising metacognitive awareness, using extrinsic rewards, and instructing learning

strategies.

Based on the principle of self-regulated learning, I incorporated teaching strategies designed to support students into Zimmerman's (1998) three major phases of academic learning cycle (see 2.2): forethought, performance, and self-reflection.

1. Forethought phase: a) Reflection of previous learning, b) Strategic planning, c) Goal setting.

In the reflection of previous learning, students were asked to review the study log and reflect on their learning to identify any problems, then think about possible solutions to them. Reflection of the previous lesson was based on the self-regulatory phase as this is the cyclical phase (academic learning cycle mentioned above). Based on this self-reflection, students can make a realistic and meaningful learning plan.

During strategic planning, students are informed about creating a learning plan. This strategy instruction includes instruction on how to prepare the class test, take notes, and schedule management. My teaching experience has led me to have some sympathy with Nunan's (1996) claim that some degree of autonomy can be fostered by systematically incorporating strategy training into the learning process (see 3.5.1.) because students in the present study are not

expected to possess effective learning skills at the beginning of the course. Based on the principle of attribution theory (see 2.1.), I believe that self-efficacy is based on a successful experience; thus, it is assumed to be important to inform students' cognitive learning strategies explicitly so that students can experience at least some degree of success in their learning. In addition, since self-efficacy includes one's behavioural actions or cognitive skills reflected in the organisation or execution of tasks (Bandura, 1997), if students gained such cognitive skills through learning strategy training, they would be expected to gain self-efficacy.

In the goal-setting phase, students were asked to set clear and immediate as well as long-term goals. Concerning goal setting, Locke and Lathman's (1990) practical suggestions can be applied to the students in the present study. The instructor should help students set clear and specific, challenging and difficult, yet attainable, proximal, as well as larger distal goals (see 2.2.1.b).

2. The performance phase: a) Encouragement of help-seeking behaviour,
c) Encouragement of peer support

Self-efficacy is believed to relate to students' behavioural engagement; high-efficacy students are found to be more likely to seek help (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). Based on this principle, the current study ensures a learning environment in which students can ask any questions not only of the instructor, but also of other students. A learning environment in which students can feel

comfortable taking risks creates a fundamental motivational condition (Dörnyei, 2001b, see 3.6.). In Group B, students were encouraged to seek help as well as help each other more often and more intentionally compared to Group A. For example, students were encouraged to write positive comments or suggestions when they corrected other students' class tests.

3. Self-regulatory phase: a) Self-reflection using study log, b) Appropriate attributional feedback, c) Positive reinforcement or rewards.

In order to encourage students to reflect on their own learning, study logs were given to the students to use them to monitor and reflect on their learning. Students were asked to record and calculate their class test scores, then write reflective comments on their performance and learning. They were encouraged to write the grammatical points they understood as well as those they did not and justify their responses. They were also encouraged to think about how they could improve their learning before the next test. Many scholars emphasise the importance of self-reflection based on self-observation (Bandura, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001b; Zimmerman, 1998). Furthermore, proper self-reflection generates in-depth metacognitive awareness towards learning, which leads to the sense of self-efficacy or enhanced motivation to learn.

In the self-regulatory phase, students—especially those with low efficacy and insufficient metacognitive strategies—tend to have the wrong attribution of their

learning outcome. In such cases, appropriate attributional feedback from the instructor plays an important role. Based on Weiner's (1984, see 2.1.2.) attribution theory, instructors need to help students reflect on their attitude and learning in an appropriate way.

Together with appropriate attributional feedback, positive reinforcement or rewards were given to students in the form of encouraging written comments, small pictures on the test sheet, or verbal encouragement when students performed better than they previously had. As mentioned in Chapter 2, I support the positive view of social cognitive theorists (Bandura, 1986) regarding giving rewards; they do not completely accept the idea of inner sources of motivation. It is assumed that most students in the present study do not possess a sufficient inner source of motivation at the beginning of the course; therefore, external rewards are believed to be essential aspects in the process of the development of self-regulation.

4.6.2.d. Teaching strategies of conventional instruction for Group A

Students in Group A received conventional instruction without learner autonomy support. In the forethought phase, students were recommended to develop learning plans and set their own goals. The importance of making learning plans and setting goals was explained to students; however, they were not required to do so in class, and the actual plans and goals were not reviewed by the instructor.

In the performance phase, the instructor tried to ensure a relaxed atmosphere in class so that students could ask questions of the instructor and other students. Students were recommended to help each other. Class tests were exchanged between students and corrected. The instructor confirmed the students' corrections and recorded the scores. The class tests were returned to the students with academic advice, but without encouraging remarks.

During the regulation phase, students were recommended to record their scores on the class tests. The importance of analysing the mistakes and keeping the study log was explained to the students. However, students were not required to do so in class.

4.7. Data collection

4.7.1. Piloting, questionnaire development, and administration

4.7.1.a. The piloting and questionnaire development

A pilot study was conducted with 35 university students (3 second-year students and 32 first-year students) at Kanagawa University during the first semester, from April to July 2008. All students were assigned to the lower introductory level English class based on their scores on a placement test developed by the university. Since the present study is exploratory in nature, the pilot study was

designed to understand the students' character and their learning. The purposes of the pilot study were:

- To ensure the appropriate data collection methods reflecting the general characteristic of the participants at this proficiency level (including attitude and academic readiness);
- To generate enhanced teaching strategies based on the characteristics of successful and unsuccessful students; and
- To generate appropriate questions and verify the timing of questionnaire administration.

At the beginning of the course, an open-ended questionnaire assessed English learning motivation, past English learning and feeling, and future and goals of learning. Based on the students' answers, 11 questions were generated and administered at the end of the course after 13 weeks of instruction. The 35 students who answered the questionnaires were divided into two groups based on their class performance. The 24 students who achieved a final score of 65% or greater on the two class tests combined were placed in the group of successful students and the remaining 10 students were placed in the group of unsuccessful students. The 65% cut-off point was determined with reference to the university regulation defining that students with a final score below 60% failed the course. Students' answers to the questionnaire were examined in each group. Along with the questionnaire, brief individual in-class interviews with several students were conducted during the teaching session.

4.7.1.b. Findings

Approximately half of the students in both groups were found to be insufficiently motivated (42% in the successful group and 50% in the unsuccessful group indicated that they were not motivated). Regarding their learning, some students in the unsuccessful group indicated a tendency resembling "learned helplessness" (Petri, 1991). They answered "I have never studied anything properly before, so I do not think I can succeed in learning English". In addition, it was observed that some of the students were not ready for academic work in terms of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies. Moreover, some students had problems with attitude towards class participation (for example, sleeping in class, not doing the tasks, talking to other students about the topics unrelated to the class, not attending the class, forgetting to bring necessary study materials, losing notes or text books).

In the informal in-class interviews, I was not able to get certain reliable data. Some students indicated resentment about being asked questions about themselves and did not answer anything properly. On the other hand, some students answered almost all the questions in a way to please me. They seemed to pretend to be "good, motivated" students, although their attitude towards learning did not coincide with their behaviour. This indicated that the interview method was not appropriate for the participants of the present study.

Based on the above findings, the participants of this proficiency level were found to be appropriate for the present study designed to examine the developmental nature of students' motivation, as most participants had the possibility of developing further motivation.

Data collection methods included only questionnaires and observations. Regarding the teaching strategies, both cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies, including planning, monitoring, and reflecting upon learning, were added to the enhanced instruction.

4.7.1.c. Questionnaire administration

Questionnaire items were carefully selected and modified in a way to avoid fatigue effect and resentment to answer the questionnaire. The questionnaires were administered immediately after the short tests and reading tests. This timing and the number of administrations were considered appropriate, assuming that the specified procedure would increase students' willingness to reflect on their learning. The number of questions was limited in the first and second questionnaires in order to increase the willingness to answer and avoid fatigue effect, especially among students with insufficient academic readiness. For those who could reflect on their motivation and learning in a more detailed way, an open-ended component was added to the questionnaire. The third questionnaire contained the greatest number of questions as this was the

end-of-course questionnaire, meaning it was possible to devote more time in class to this questionnaire. It was expected that students would be more willing to complete the third questionnaire as a reflection of their learning. A complete list of questionnaire items can be found in Appendices 2 through 4.

4.7.2. Case study including individual observation

An extensive amount of data was collected and analysed for all individuals who participated in the study. The purpose of the individual data collection process was to investigate the:

- students' language learning belief in relation to their sense of competence, attribution, expectancy to success, and anxiety;
- motivational development of students with specific learning features and different perceived levels of motivation;
- motivational factors of students with specific learning features;
- relationship between motivational development and the level of each student's performance on the class tests throughout the course;
- components of learner autonomy support required for students with specific learning features; and
- common characteristics of successful and unsuccessful students.

Eight students were selected based on their total scores on the class tests. Two successful students were selected from those who earned the highest and the second highest scores in both Group A and Group B. Two unsuccessful students

were selected from those who earned the lowest and the second lowest scores in both Group A and Group B. Although they were chosen because of their scores, the students selected for the case studies have interesting features.

The similarities and differences between successful students (two from Group A and two from Group B) and unsuccessful students (two from Group A and two from Group B) were investigated. The focus points to be analysed included students' motivational development in the self-determination theory (SDT) framework and three important psychological needs in SDT: self-efficacy, perception of competence, and metacognitive awareness towards learning. After the analysis of the successful and unsuccessful students, possible learner autonomy support for the students with specific characteristics is discussed.

The data from individual students include the answers to the pre-course open-ended questionnaire completed by all students, the data from the grammar diagnostic tests conducted at the beginning of the course, the answers from the open-ended section of three questionnaires, students' scores on class tests, and the instructor's observations. The instructor's observations were recorded as written field notes.

In the pre-course open-ended questionnaire, students were asked to write the answers to three questions: 1. Please describe your learning history and analyse your competence in English?; 2. Why do you learn English?; and 3. How do you

want to learn in this class? If you have special requests for the instructor, please note them. Students were asked to write the answers to all of the open-ended questions in Japanese, considering their low level of proficiency in writing English.

4.8. Data Analysis

4.8.1. Analysis of quantitative data

Closed-ended parts of questionnaires were coded and analysed using SPSS version 17 for Windows. In order to explore the relationship between the two categorical variables, Group A and B, the chi-square test for independence was used. This choice was made because the number of participants was very small and the data were considered appropriate for non-parametric techniques (Pallant, 2007). The responses of students in Groups A and B to all three questionnaires were compared statistically.

In order to explore the effect of teaching on students' motivation, the students' perception of their level of motivation was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "very much" to "not at all". The Likert scale was used because it is simple, versatile, and reliable (Dörnyei, 2003).

4.8.2. Analysis of qualitative data

Open-ended parts of questionnaire were categorised and analysed based on the theoretical principles of both self-regulated learning and self-determination theory, as discussed in Chapter 2. In order to explore the developmental process of students' motivation, types of motivation were identified according to the four different developmental stages of the self-determination theory framework: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation. Intrinsic motivation was added but ultimately considered outside the developmental continuum.

Students' answers were also categorised using key concepts of self-regulated learning—namely, confidence to achieve, sense of efficacy, goal-setting, cognitive learning strategies, metacognitive awareness, and anxiety as well as three basic needs in internalization of regulation in self-determination theory: relatedness, competence, and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2002).

4.9. Ethical issues

The study considered ethical issues, as discussed in this section along with the actual measures to provide these considerations. The related conflicts, dilemmas, and struggles are also discussed.

4.9.1. Ethical considerations in the process of data collection

Before asking participants to complete the questionnaires, informed consent was obtained from all participants in the research. This included information concerning the aims of investigation and the purpose for which the data would be used, the possible benefits of the investigation, the extent to which answers would be held confidential, and the basic right of the participants to withdraw from the study at any time (Dörnyei, 2007). The information provided to participants also stated that the study and questionnaires would not harm the students. It was clearly explained to the students that their answers—regardless of the contents—would never affect the final grade of the course. This information was delivered to the students in both written and oral form. Students' signatures were not collected because signed consent forms were considered to be too formal and would exert pressure on the students (Canadian Code of Ethics for Psychologists, I.22, 2000).

All students completed the questionnaires. However, students provided different degrees of detail when responding to the questions. Students were not encouraged to write in more detail because such encouragement would be considered coercion. In the data collection stage, no particular conflicts or struggles were experienced.

4.9.2. Ethical consideration for teaching project

The present research upheld the basic ethical consideration not to harm the participants. The American Education Research Association (AERA) states that researchers should protect the rights of participants just as "education researchers take steps to implement protections for the rights and welfare of research participants and other persons affected by the research" (2011, 14.01, p. 13). In order for the students in Group A with conventional instruction—not only students in Group B with learner autonomy-focused instruction—to receive the benefit of the teaching project, the same content was taught and the same tests and questionnaires were administered to both groups. Efforts were made to maintain a comfortable learning environment in which students could easily seek help from the instructors. In order to assist students with questions or learning problems, I announced my office hours and encouraged students to come to see me if they needed to resolve or address any problems.

Having made such efforts to minimise the difference in terms of assuring beneficence in the teaching project, I must admit that the research design itself introduced some inequalities. Over time, I noticed the apparent change in the relationship between students and me. I observed a more relaxed and intimate relationship among students and between students and me in Group B, while in Group A the atmosphere in the class remained more formal. This may have been caused by the teaching strategies of learner autonomy-focused instruction in

Group B, especially during the performance and self-regulatory phases.

Another point which posed a dilemma in relation to the students in Group A appeared in the self-regulatory phase. I realised the importance of keeping a study log with reflections to maintain motivation. However, the research design did not allow me to force the students in Group A to keep the study log in class. I felt guilty about not being able to require these students to write these logs, especially knowing the benefits of keeping the study log. However, I was able to remind them to keep the logs. I tried hard to tell the students in Group A who experienced problems to come to see me to discuss their problems outside the class, but they did not. To sum up, I felt a dilemma between complying with the restrictions of my research design and providing benefit to the students in Group B in terms of my relationship with them; however, I did my best to ensure that the actual learning opportunities were the same for both groups.

4.10. Summary of Chapter 4

In this chapter, I have described why this exploratory study was conducted with the detailed explanation of socio-cultural contexts of Japanese EFL classes in university settings. The description of the study involving introduction of the research participants, the research process, the data collection, and the data analysis has also been provided in the effort to present as clear picture of the procedures as possible to comprehend the following chapters.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I provide quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data to answer the research questions.

5.2. Research Question 1: What effect does learner autonomy-focused instruction (including metacognitive awareness-raising, instruction of learning strategies, and the use of extrinsic rewards) have on the students' perception of their level of motivation?

5.2.1. The first administration of the questionnaire

Question 1

84.2% of Group A and 85.7% of Group B students answered "yes" to the question, "Do you feel that your motivation to study English is greater than it was at the beginning of this semester in September?" 15.7% of Group A and 9.5% of Group B students answered "no change." A 2 x 3 Chi-square test for independence indicated no significant association between Group A and Group B, x2 (2, 40) = 1.221a, p=.543.

Table 5.1. Group difference in Question 1 in the first questionnaire

Group	Yes	No change	No, it decreased
A (n = 19)	84.2% (16)	15.7% (3)	0% (0)
B (n = 21)	85.7% (18)	9.5% (2)	4.7% (1)

* Percentage and the numbers are described.

This illustrates that the difference between Group A and Group B is not significant. Students in both groups felt that their motivation had increased, meaning that the instruction and the students' classroom experience positively affected their motivation to learn English. This general trend of increased motivation in both groups may have been caused by the contents of instruction itself. Thus, we can say that in the early stages of the study, the students receiving learner autonomy support showed no tangible quantitative benefits in terms of motivation. As we will see in Section 5.2.2., they did start to show benefits in terms of a more qualitative nature.

Question 2

47.3% of Group A students and 66.7% of Group B students answered "yes" to the question, "Do you study more than before compared to the beginning of this semester?" A 2 x 3 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between Group A and Group B, $x2\ (2, 40) = 2.994$, $p = .224$.

Table 5.2. Group difference in Question 2 in the first questionnaire

Group	Yes	No change	No, it decreased
A (n = 19)	47.3% (9)	52.6% (10)	0% (0)
B (n = 21)	66.7% (14)	28.6% (6)	4.7% (1)

This indicates that there was no significant difference in the answers between Group A and Group B for Question 2. The learner autonomy support therefore appears to have had no quantitative impact on their willingness to study. The qualitative impact is discussed below.

Question 3

The third question was "How motivated are you to study English now?" Students answered "very much," "moderately" or "somewhat." A 2 x 5 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between Group A and Group B, $x2(2, 40) = 1.905$, $p = .386$.

Table 5.3. Group difference in Question 3 in the first questionnaire

Group	Very much	Moderately	Somewhat	Not much	Not at all
A (n = 19)	5.3% (1)	78.9% (15)	15.8% (3)	0% (0)	0% (0)
B (n = 21)	19.0%(4)	71.45 (15)	9.5% (2)	0% (0)	0% (0)

The results revealed that most of the students in Groups A and B answered

"moderately" motivated. This indicates that there was no significant difference in the answers between Group A and Group B in terms of their overall levels of perceived motivation.

Overall, there was no difference in the answers between Groups A and B in the first questionnaire. This illustrates that the effect of learner autonomy-focused instruction had not been observed at this stage (after the fifth small test and four weeks into the course). In addition, a general positive effect of grammar instruction in both groups started to emerge, because most of the students in both of the groups experienced an increase in motivation to learn English, compared to the beginning of the course.

5.2.2. The second administration of the questionnaire

Question 1

This question was "Do you feel that your motivation to study English has increased compared to the last time you answered this question?" 57.9% of the students in Group A and 95.2% of the students in Group B students answered "yes." A 2x3 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the students in Group A and Group B, $x2\ (2, 40) = 8.033$, $p = .018$. The number of students in Group A who answered "yes" was significantly small (residual = -2.8). The number of students in Group B who answered "yes" were significantly large (residual = 2.8).

Table 5.4. Group difference in Question 1 in the second questionnaire

Group	Yes	No change	No it decreased
A (n = 19)	57.9% (11)	36.8% (7)	5.3% (1)
B (n = 21)	95.2% (20)	4.8% (1)	0% (0)

The results illustrate that the motivation of students in the Group B generally increased during this four week period of instruction. However, the motivation in Group A did not increase as much as that of the students in the Group B.

Thus, in contrast to the results of the first questionnaire, in the second questionnaire, there was a significant difference between the students in Group A and the students in the Group B. The perceived level of motivation among the students in Group A appeared to decrease between weeks 4 and 8. This suggests that the learner autonomy-focused instruction may have had a positive effect on the students in Group B.

The students were also asked to explain why their motivation did, or did not, increase during this period. Interesting findings emerged. These qualitative data are analyzed and discussed (see Section 5.4.2., Question 1).

Question 2

Question 2 was "How motivated are you to study English now?" 68.4% of the

students in Group A and 76.2% of the students in Group B answered "moderately." A 2x4 Chi-squared test for independence indicated no significant association between the students in Groups A and B, x2 (3, 40) = 5.023, p = .170.

Table 5.5 Group difference in Question 2 in the second questionnaire

Group	Very much	Moderately	Somewhat	Not much	Not at all
A (n = 19)	5.3% (1)	68.4% (13)	15.8% (3)	10.5%(2)	0% (0)
B (n = 21)	19.0%(4)	76.2% (16)	4.8% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)

This illustrates that the difference in the student's answers between Groups A and B were not significant. The majority of students in both groups stated "moderately motivated." In other words, motivation of the students who were receiving the learner autonomy support developed gradually.

Question 3 was designed to elicit qualitative data and will be analyzed and discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.2.).

5.2.3. The third administration of the questionnaire

Question 1

The first question was "How long did you study before each class test?" 15.8% of the students in Group A and 38.1% of the students in Group B studied less than 5

minutes a day. 52.6% of the students in Group A and 42.9% of the students in Group B studied for 5 to 30 minutes at a time. A 2x4 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the students in Group A and those in Group B, x2 (3, 40) = 4.236, p = .237.

Table 5.6. Group difference in Question 1 in the third questionnaire

Group	0 min.	Less than 5 min.	5 to 30 min.	More than 30 min.
A (n = 19)	10.5% (2)	15.8% (3)	52.6% (10)	21.1% (4)
B (n = 21)	0% (0)	38.1% (8)	42.9% (9)	19.0% (4)

The results illustrate that there was no significant difference in study time between the students in Groups A and B during the semester. The majority of the students in both groups spent only 5 to 30 minutes preparing for each class test. It is reasonable that students spent only a short period of time in preparation for the class test, because the test itself consisted of only five questions and that they had learned the answers to all of the questions in the previous day's lesson. However, it is interesting to note that the students in Group B did not spend a longer period of time preparing for tests than the students in Group A. This means that the learner autonomy support did not appear to have a direct impact on their study times in terms of test preparation. However, as we will see below, study times did not relate positively to test performance, which suggests that it may not be as important as has previously been suggested.

Question 2

Question 2 was “Did you feel that your motivation has increased since the last time you answered this question?” 57.9% of the students in Group A and 90.5% of the students in Group B answered “yes.” A contingency table for this data is illustrated below. A 2x3 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the students in Groups A and B, $x2\ (2, 40) = 9.390$, $p = .009$.

Table 5.7. Group difference in Question 1 in the third questionnaire

Group	Yes	No change	No, it decreased
A (n = 19)	57.9% (11)	5.3% (1)	36.8% (7)
B (n = 21)	90.5% (19)	9.5% (2)	0% (0)

The results illustrate that the motivation of the students in Group B increased more than the motivation of the students in Group A from the period of time between the 14th class test and the 16th class test (Weeks 8 to 13). It is interesting to see that seven students in Group A believed that their motivation to learn had actually decreased. In contrast, no students in Group B believed that their motivation to learn had decreased. This seems to illustrate the learner autonomy-focused instruction positively affect in maintaining the students’ motivation. The students were also asked to explain why their motivation did, or did not, increase during this period. These qualitative data are analyzed and

discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.3., Question 2).

The comparison of the motivational development data between the first, second, and the third questionnaire is discussed in a later section (see Section 5.3.1. and 5.3.2).

Question 3

Question3 was "How motivated are you to study English now?" 31.7% of the students in Group A and 61.9% of the students in Group B answered "moderately." A 2X5 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the students in Groups A and B, x2 (4, 40) = 4.357, p = .360).

Table 5.8. Group difference in Question 3 in the third questionnaire

Group	Very much	Moderately	Somewhat	Not much	Not at all
A (n = 19)	15.8%(3)	31.7% (6)	36.8% (7)	10.5%(2)	5.3% (1)
B (n = 21)	9.5% (2)	61.9% (13)	23.8% (5)	4.8% (1)	0% (0)

Most students in Group B answered "moderately" (Residual = 1.9). Few students answered "very much" in either group (3 in Group A and 2 in Group B). Again, although the students who had received the learner autonomy support claimed to have increased their perceived levels of motivation, their overall levels of motivation at the end of the study were not significantly higher than those in

Group A. One reason for this could be that they were trying to be modest in their responses and were reluctant to report very 'high' levels of motivation. This is a problem with self-reported data. The comparison of this data of motivation level between the first, second, and the third questionnaire is discussed in a later section (see Section 5.3.1 and 5.3.2.)

Question 4

As we saw in the methodology chapter, one of the aims of learner autonomy support was to help the students make more use of the evaluation system. They were therefore asked: "Did you understand the evaluation system from the beginning?" 52.6% of the students in Group A and 85.7% of the students in Group B answered "yes" to this question. A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the students in Group A and those in Group B, x^2 (1, 40) = 5.199, p = .023.

Table 5.9. Group difference in Question 4 in the third questionnaire

Group	Yes	No
A (n = 19)	52.6% (10)	47.4% (9)
B (n = 21)	85.7% (18)	14.3% (3)

The results illustrate that the students in Group B understood the evaluation system much better than the students in Group A. This may be the result of a stronger autonomy supportive instruction, which the students in Group B had.

Students in both groups had the evaluation system explained to them, however, their attitudes towards the evaluation system between the groups were different. The students in Group B were able to monitor, calculate, and write down their scores from the small tests and the reading tests in class in an autonomy supportive way with written and oral encouragement, every time they had a test. The students in Group A, on the other hand, were encouraged to monitor, calculate and record a log, but they were not made to write down their scores in class. They also did not receive autonomy supportive instruction. These results illustrate that students did not fully understand the meaning of monitoring their own learning just by being told to do so and told to record their scores.

Question 5

As an extension of their ability to use the evaluation system, I was interested in whether they consciously tried to get better marks in the system. I therefore included the question: "Did you try to get good marks according to the system?" 63.2% of the students in Group A and 80% of the students in Group B answered "yes." A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B, $x^2(1, 40) = 2.707$, $p = .100$.

Table 5.10. Group difference in Question 5 in the third questionnaire

Group	Yes	No
A (n = 19)	63.2% (12)	36.8% (7)
B (n = 21)	85.7% (18)	14.3% (3)

The results illustrate that students in both groups generally tried to get good marks, regardless of their level of understanding of the evaluation system presented in the results in Question 4. The students were also asked why they did, or did not, try to get good marks according to the system. These results are discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.3., Question 5).

Question 6

Another metacognitive awareness-focused question was: "Did you plan your learning goal?" This had been explicitly covered with the students in the learner autonomy support group, but we can see that it did not appear to make a significant difference in terms of goal-making behaviour. 63.2% of the students in Group A and 85.7% of the students in Group B answered "yes." A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B, x^2 (1, 40) = 2.707, p = .100.

Table 5.11. Group difference in Question 6 in the third questionnaire

Group	Yes	No
A (n = 19)	63.2% (12)	36.8% (7)
B (n = 21)	85.7% (18)	14.3% (3)

The results illustrate that the number of students who planned their learning goal was larger than those who did not plan their learning goal in both groups. This is an unexpected finding, because the students in Group B were made to plan their learning goal in class, but the students in Group A were not. The students were also asked to write a detailed description of their goals. These results are discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.3., Question 6).

Question 7

Returning to the issue of assessment and its role in metacognitive behaviour, Question 7 was created: "Did you always know your accumulated scores?" 42.1% of the students in Group A and 81.0% of the students in Group B answered "yes." A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B, x^2 (1, 40) = 6.423, p = .011.

Table 5.12. Group difference in Question 7 in the third questionnaire

Group	Yes	No
A (n = 19)	42.1% (8)	57.9% (11)
B (n = 21)	81.0% (17)	19.0% (4)

The results illustrate that the students in Group B apprehended their accumulated scores better than the students in Group A. This may also have been the result of learner autonomy support received by the learner autonomy-focused instruction. These results indicate that students did not monitor, calculate, and record a study log, unless they were required to do it in class. Just telling students to record a log would not contribute to the establishment of the good learning habits of monitoring their learning and achievement. The students were also asked the reason that they were studying English. These results are discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.3., Question 7).

Question 8

To assess how the students reflected on their entire learning experience, I asked: "Were you able to study as much as you wanted?" 47.4% of the students in Group A and 61.9% of the students in Group B answered "yes." A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the students in Group A and those in Group B, x^2 (1, 40) = .852, p = .356.

Table 5.13. Group difference in Question 8 in the third questionnaire

Group	Yes	No
A (n = 19)	47.4% (9)	52.6% (10)
B (n = 21)	61.9% (13)	38.1% (8)

The results illustrate that around half of the students in both groups felt that they were not able to study as much as they desired. The students were also asked why they were (or were not) able to study as much as they wanted. These results are discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.3., Question 8).

Question 9

In an attempt at making a quantitative assessment of the students' self-efficacy, I asked: "Do you think that you have improved your proficiency in English as compared to before?" 84.2% of Group A students and 95.2% of Group B students answered "yes." A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B, x^2 (1, 40) = 1.348, p = .246.

Table 5.14. Group difference in Question 9 in the third questionnaire

Group	Yes	No
A (n = 19)	84.2% (16)	15.8% (3)
B (n = 21)	95.2% (20)	4.8% (1)

The results illustrate that students in both groups felt that they improved their proficiency in English. This is interesting, because students in both groups claimed that they had not been able to study as much as they wanted to. Regardless of the level of satisfaction in their self-study, they felt a sense of improvement during the course. The students were also asked why they felt they improved. This is a more interesting approach, as self-efficacy is best explored from a qualitative point of view. The results are discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.3., Question 9).

Question 10

To investigate the impact of learner autonomy support on intrinsic motivation, I asked: "Do you think learning English is interesting?" 36.8% of Group A students and 81.0% of Group B students answered "yes." A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there is a significant difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B, x^2 (1, 40) = 8.087, p = .004. Few students in Group A answered "yes" (residual = -2.8), while many students in Group B answered "yes" (residual = 2.8).

Table 5.15. Group difference in Question 10 in the third questionnaire

Group	**Yes**	**No**
A (n = 19)	36.8% (7)	63.2% (12)
B (n = 21)	81.0% (17)	19.0% (4)

These results illustrate that more students in Group B felt that learning English is interesting, in contrast to the students in Group A. The instruction in the Group B has contributed more to the students' interest in learning English than the instruction in Group A. The students were also asked why they think English is interesting. These results are discussed in a later section (5.4.3., Question 10).

Question 11

To investigate the relationship between learner autonomy-focused instruction and students' motivation, I asked: "Do you want to become more proficient in English?" 89.5% of Group A students and 100% of Group B students answered "yes." A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B, ($x^2 1$, 40) = 2.327, p = .127.

Table 5.16. Group difference in Question 11 in the third questionnaire

Group	**Yes**	**No**
A (n = 19)	89.5% (17)	10.5% (2)
B (n = 21)	100.0% (21)	0.0% (0)

These results illustrate that students in both groups expressed a very strong desire to become proficient in English. It is noteworthy that 63.2% of the students in Group A (as presented in Question 10) did not find learning English interesting, yet a majority of students in Group A wanted to be proficient in

English. Towards the end of the academic year (after the 13 weeks of the instruction) ,these students may have felt that English is necessary for them, but they still feel that English is not interesting to learn. It can be concluded that these 63.2% of students were strongly externally motivated, but they started to develop an identified regulation. The students were also asked why they wanted to become more proficient in English. These results are discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.3., Question 11).

Question 12

As part of the investigation into the metacognitive awareness of what can be learned from testing, I included the question, "Do you like the system of taking a class test in every class?" 52.6% of the Group A students and 85.7% of the Group B students answered "yes." A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B, x^2 (1, 40) = 5.199, p = .023. Few students in Group A answered "yes" (residual = -2.3), while many students in Group B answered "yes" (residual = 2.8).

Table 5.17. Group difference in Question 12 in the third questionnaire

Group	Yes	No
A (n = 19)	52.6% (10)	47.4% (9)
B (n = 21)	85.7% (18)	14.3% (3)

These results illustrate that students in Group B appreciated the system of taking a class test in a class more than the students in Group A. The students were also asked what they think about the class tests. These results are discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.3., Question 12).

Question 13

To explore the impact of learner autonomy support on the students' long term motivation, I asked: "Do you want to keep studying English?" 73.7% of the Group A students and 95.2% of the Group B students answered "yes." A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B, x^2 (1, 40) = 3.635, p = .057.

Table 5.18. Group difference in Question 13 in the third questionnaire

Group	Yes	No
A (n = 19)	73.7% (14)	26.3% (5)
B (n = 21)	95.2% (20)	4.8% (1)

These results illustrate a slightly larger number of students in Group B who want to keep studying English. Generally, a majority of students in both groups want to keep studying English after the course ends. The students were also asked why they want to keep studying English. These results are discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.3., Question 13)

Question 14

To explore the impact of the learner autonomy support on the students' long term motivation, I asked: "Do you want to take elective, higher-level English classes?" 52.6% of the Group A students and 66.7% of the Group B students answered "yes." A 2 x 2 Chi-squared analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B, x^2 (1, 40) = .819, p = .366.

Table 5.19. Group difference in Question 14 in the third questionnaire

Group	Yes	No
A (n = 19)	52.6% (10)	47.4% (9)
B (n = 21)	66.7% (14)	33.3% (7)

These results illustrate that the desire to take higher-level English classes is generally low in both groups of students. Learner autonomy support did not appear to affect long term motivation according to this questionnaire. The students were also asked why they wanted to take (or why they did not want to take) high-level English classes. These results are discussed in a later section (see Section 5.4.3., Question 14).

5.2.4. The summary of the findings from the third questionnaire

The third questionnaire was conducted at the end of the course, thus, the answers provided described the characteristics of the students formed through the 13 weeks of instruction in both groups.

These results illustrate the general characteristics of students who received learner autonomy-focused instruction in Group B as follows:

1. They studied 5 to 30 minutes to prepare for the class tests, approximately the same time as the students in Group A.
2. They generally kept increasing their motivation throughout the course.
3. They were moderately motivated to study at the end of the course.
4. They understood the evaluation system very well, significantly better than the students in Group A.
5. They generally tried to obtain good marks.
6. Most of them planned their learning goals.
7. They always wrote down their accumulated scores. They apprehended their scores significantly better than the students in Group A.
8. Around half of them felt they were able to study as much as they wanted.
9. Most of the students felt they improved their proficiency in English.
10. Most of the students felt that learning English was interesting. More students in Group B felt this than students in Group A.
11. All of the students felt that they wanted to become more proficient in

English at the end of the course.

12. Most of the students liked the system of a class test in every class. They appreciated the system significantly more than the students in Group A.
13. Most of the students felt they wanted to keep studying English at the end of the course.
14. More than half of the students felt that they wanted to take higher-level classes.

Compared to the students in Group A, the students in Group B illustrated stronger interests in learning English, a stronger level of understanding of the evaluation system, a stronger level of monitoring their learning and apprehending their scores, and a stronger level of appreciation towards the system of class tests in every class. The data examined so far illustrates that the learner autonomy-focused instruction contributes to raise students' interests in learning English. This may be caused by the successful understanding of the system about learning English in Group B. To better understand the detail of the students' motivations and other related factors that may increase their motivations, an examination of the students' perceptions from their written answers to the questions was conducted.

5.3. Motivational development of students in Groups A and B found in the first, second, and third questionnaires

In order to answer the Research Question 2a: When and how does student motivational development occur in the two groups?, the motivational development of students in Groups A and Group B during the 13 weeks of instruction was examined to aid in our understanding of when their motivations changed. In this section, the focus of the data analysis is on "time". Presenting the graphs showing the longitudinal features made it possible to see when student motivational development occurred more clearly than the tables in the previous section. Two common questions in the first, second, and third questionnaires were asked to determine the differences and changes in the students' motivation; "Do you feel that your motivation to study English is greater than it was compared to before?" and "How motivated are you to study English now?"

5.3.1. Students' perception of the *increase* in their motivation during the 13 weeks of the course

To determine when students started to change their motivation during the 13 weeks of instruction, three figures (Figures 5.1., 5.2., and 5.3.) were created based on the data presented in Table 5.1., 5.4., and 5.7. in Section 5.2. These figures illustrate the level of motivation in students in Groups A and B. the data

was based on the answer to the question, “Do you feel that your motivation to study English is greater than it was?” asked at 4, 8, and 13 weeks after they started the course.

Figure 5.1. indicates that most of the students in Group B kept feeling that their motivation was greater than before after 4, 8, with slight decrease after 13 weeks of the instruction. On the other hand the percentage of the students in Group A who felt that their motivation was greater than before, began to decrease after 8 weeks more in Group A than in Group B.

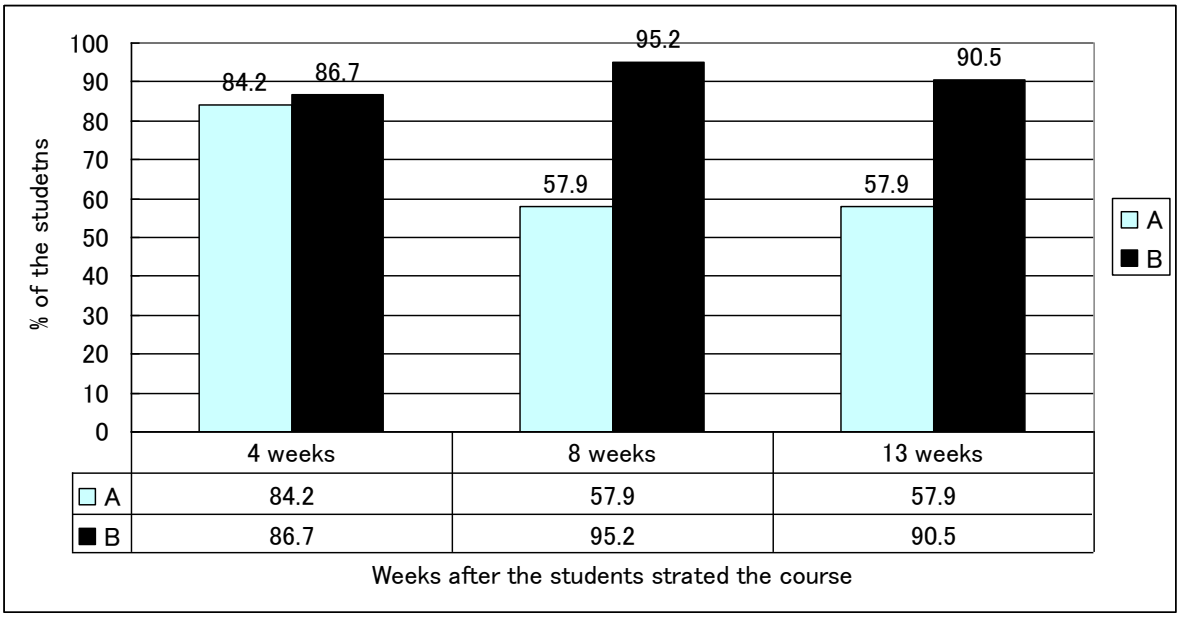


Figure 5.1. Students who felt their motivation increased

Figure 5.2. indicates that more students in Group A felt their motivation were unchanged after 8 weeks of instruction.

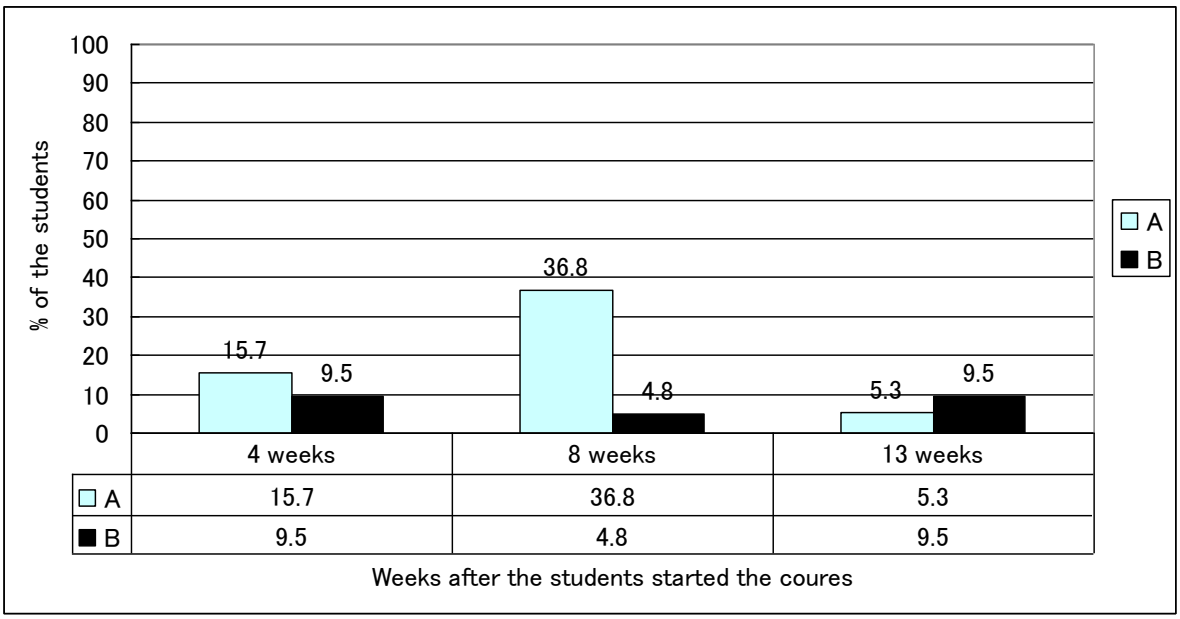


Figure 5.2. Students who felt their motivations were unchanged

Figure 5.3. indicates more students in Group A began to feel their motivation decreased after 13 weeks of instruction. This may indicate the instruction in Group A did not positively affect the students to increase their motivation. The accumulation of failure on the class tests, or unsuccessful learning, may be a cause, but the open-ended questions should be examined in detail to better define the cause of the unchanged or decreased motivation.

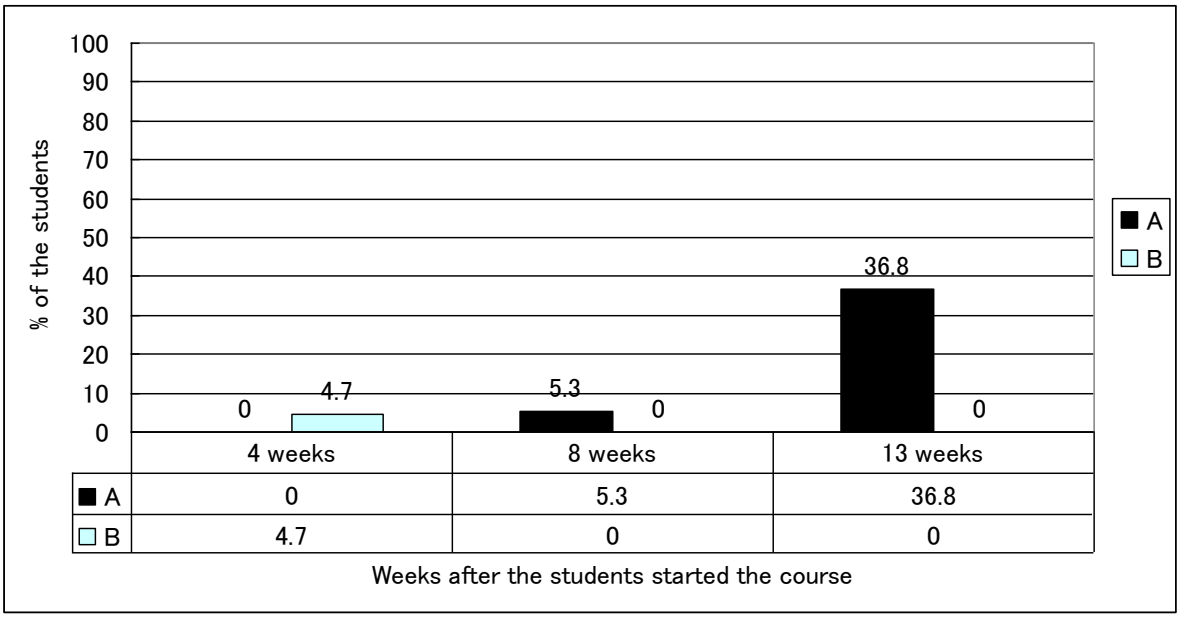


Figure 5.3. Students who felt their motivations decreased

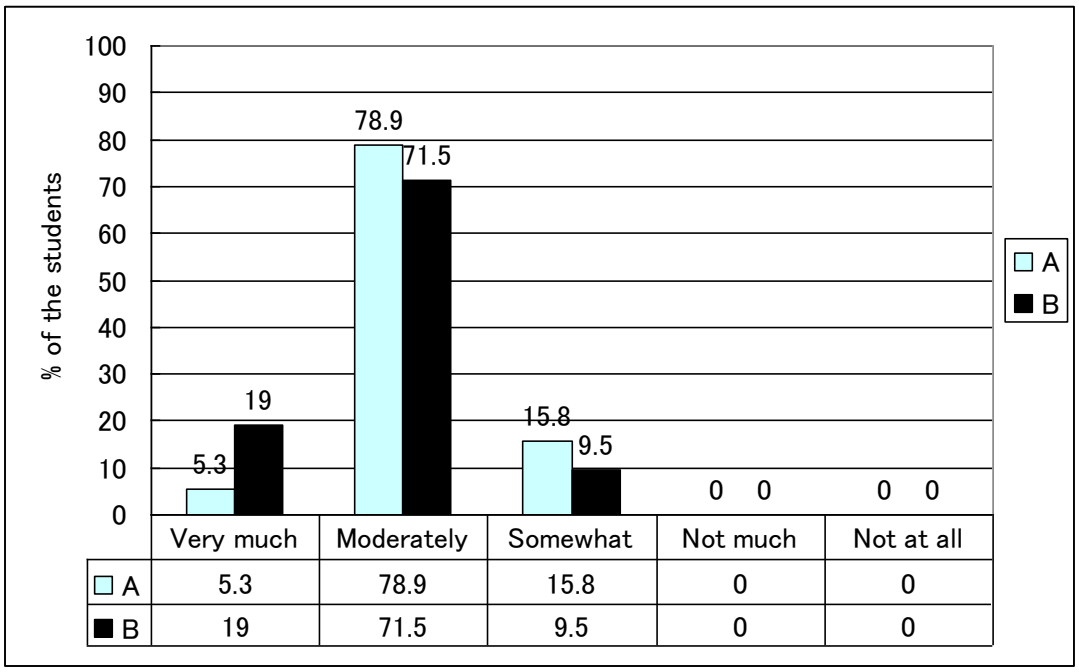
On the other hand, no students in Group B began to feel their motivation decrease after 8 weeks or 13 weeks of instruction. Only one or two students felt their motivation was unchanged. This answer, "unchanged," does not necessarily mean that students were not motivated. It might possibly be that they were already highly motivated from the beginning. Thus, it is important to examine answers to the open-ended questions in more detail. Overall, the data indicated

that learner autonomy-focused instruction positively affected students to increase their motivation.

5.3.2. Students' perception of their level of motivation during the 13 weeks of the course

To determine the change in the perceived level of motivation during the 13 weeks of instruction, three figures (Figures 5.4., 5.5., and 5.6.) were created based on the data presented in Tables 5.3., 5.5., and 5.8. in Section 5.2. These figures illustrate the level of motivation in students in Groups A and B. The data is based on the answer to the question "How motivated are you now?" asked at 4, 8 , and 13 weeks after they started the course.

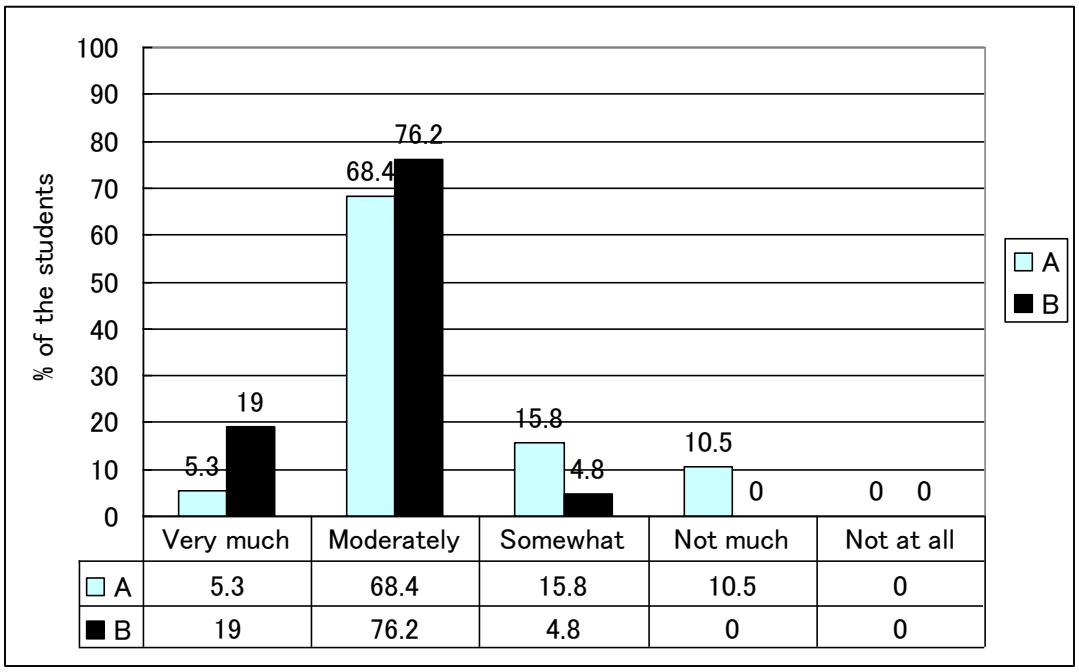
Figure 5.4. illustrates that after 4 weeks of instruction, the majority of students in both groups were “moderately” motivated. In addition, at this stage, there were no students who were “not motivated much” or “not motivated at all.” There was no significant difference in the students’ perception of the level of motivation between the Group A and the Group B students.



	Very much	Moderately	Somewhat	Not much	Not at all
A	5.3	78.9	15.8	0	0
B	19	71.5	9.5	0	0

Figure 5.4. Students’ level of motivation after 4 weeks

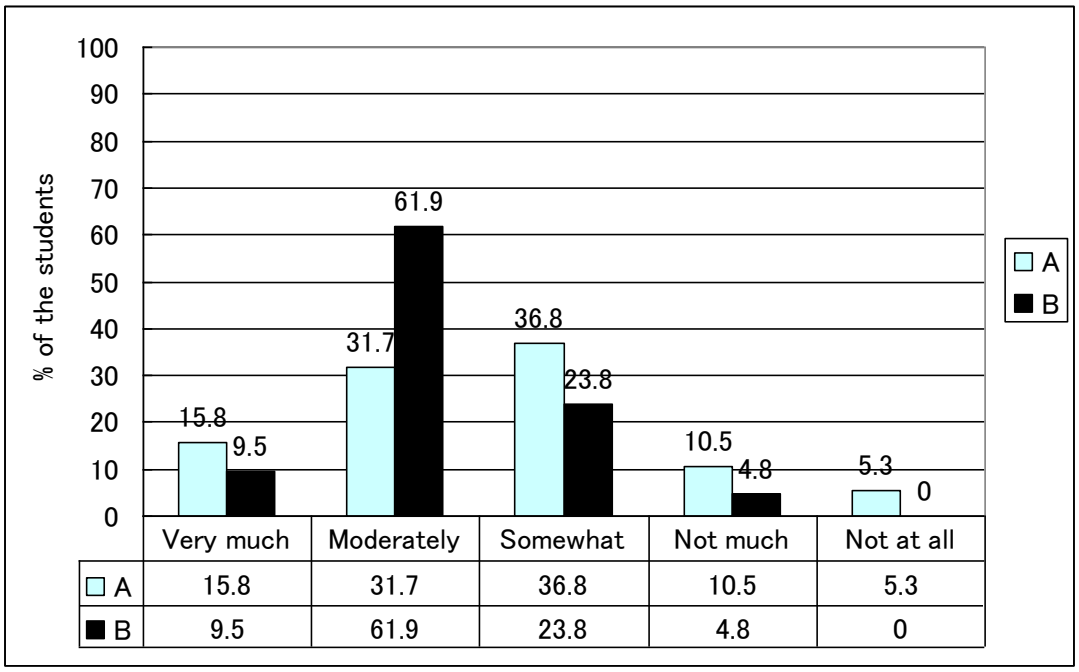
Figure 5.5. indicates that majority of the students still answered “moderately” in both groups and the percentage of these students increased in Group B. However, the students who answered “not much” started to appear in Group A students. This indicated that some students in Group A started to decrease their motivation after eight weeks of instruction.



	Very much	Moderately	Somewhat	Not much	Not at all
A	5.3	68.4	15.8	10.5	0
B	19	76.2	4.8	0	0

Figure 5.5. Students’ level of motivation after 8 weeks

Figure 5.6. indicates that the percentage of students who answered “moderately” decreased and shifted to “somewhat” after 13 weeks of instruction in both groups. This may illustrate the difficulty of keeping motivation high during a course of study. At the end of the course, the largest number of Group B students answered “moderately” motivated, however, the largest number of Group A students answered “somewhat.” Group A students especially found it more difficult to maintain their motivation to study without autonomy support. The reason for their decreasing motivation may be found in the open-ended survey questions.



	Very much	Moderately	Somewhat	Not much	Not at all
A	15.8	31.7	36.8	10.5	5.3
B	9.5	61.9	23.8	4.8	0

Figure 5.6. Students’ level of motivation after 13 weeks

Figure 5.7. illustrates that the percentage of the students who answered “very much” motivated did not change much throughout the course.

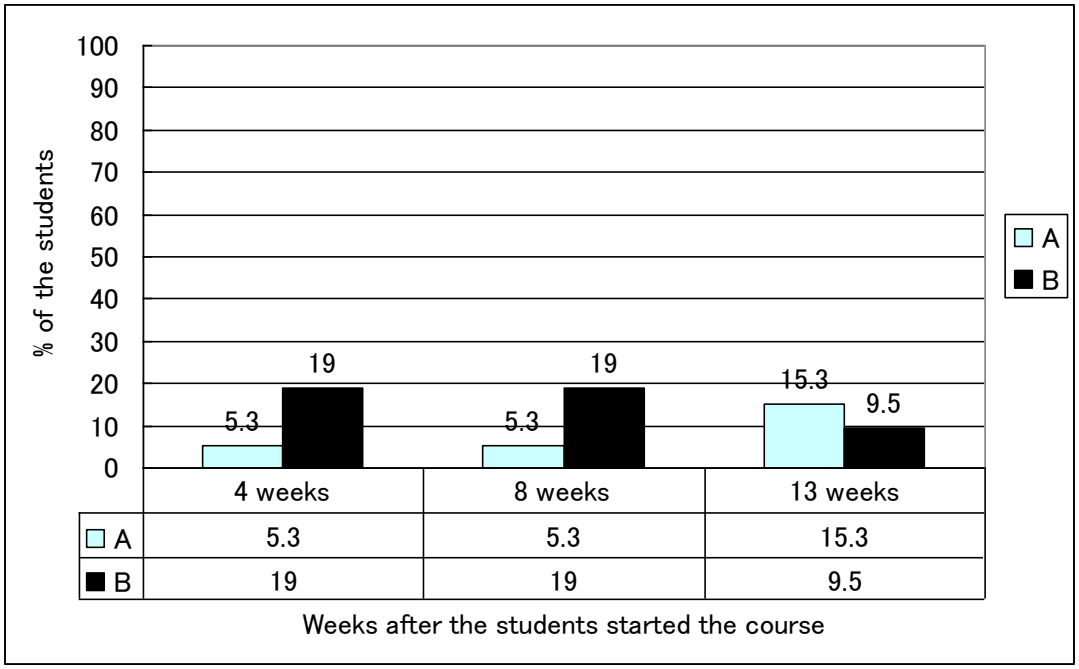


Figure 5.7. Students who were “very much” motivated

Figure 5.8. illustrates that the number of students who answered “moderately” motivated decreased between 8 weeks and 13 weeks, but the decrease in Group A students was steeper.

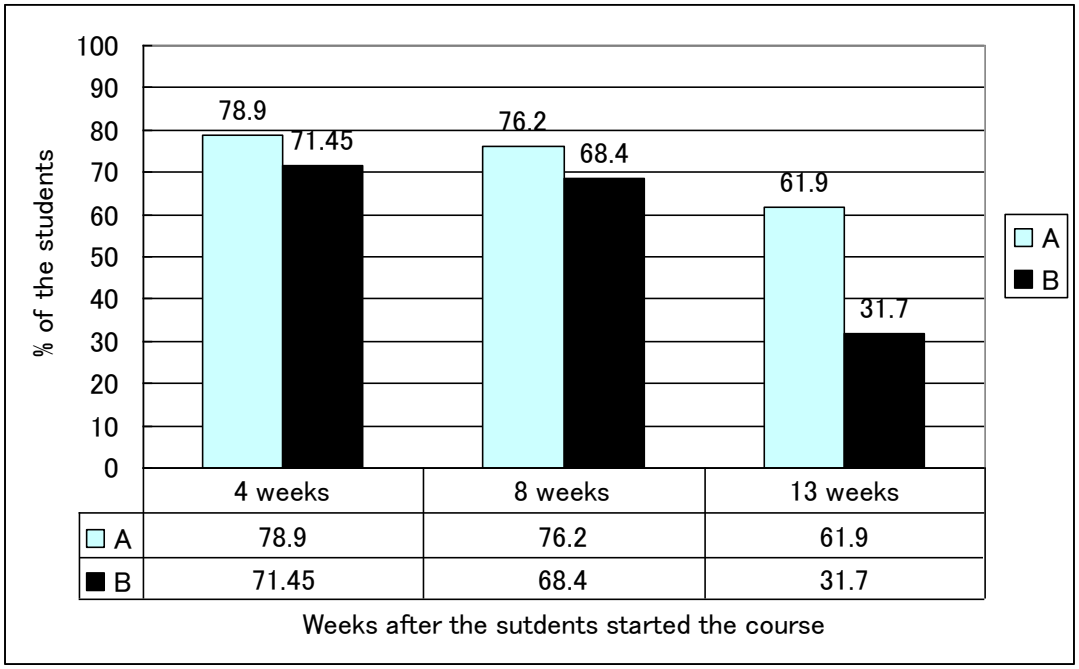


Figure 5.8. Students who were “moderately” motivated

Figure 5.9. illustrates that the percentage of students who answered “somewhat” motivated increased in both groups between the eighth and thirteenth week. However, the percentage was larger in Group A than Group B.

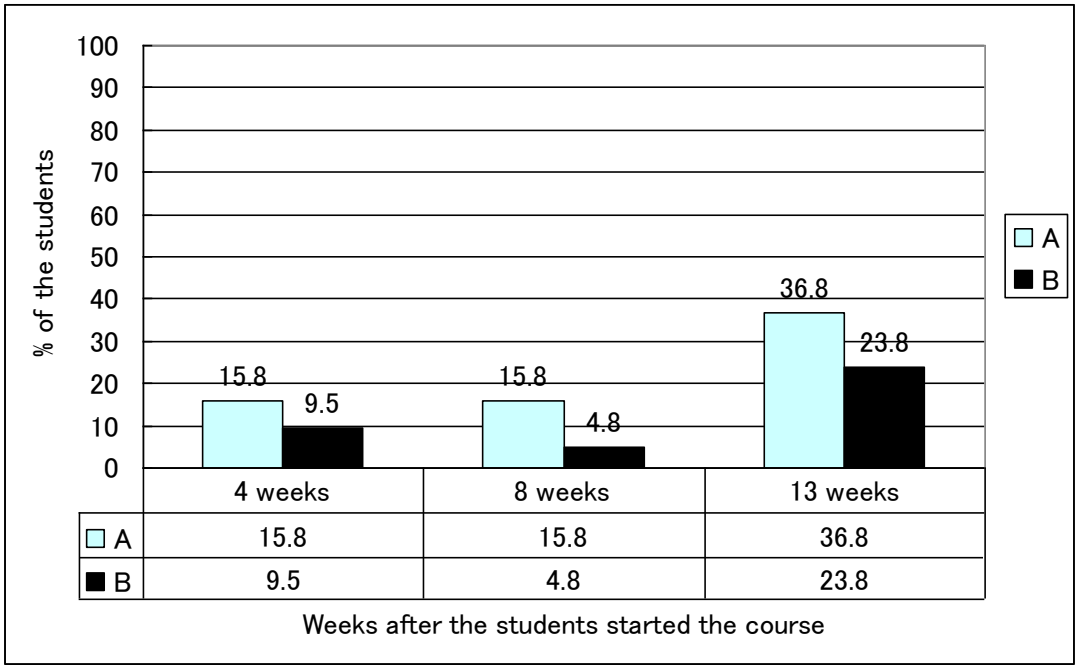


Figure 5.9. Students who were “somewhat” motivated

Figure 5.10. illustrates that the percentage of students who answered “not motivated much” began to appear between the eighth week and thirteenth week in both groups. This indicated that some students in both groups started to experience problems in learning during this period.

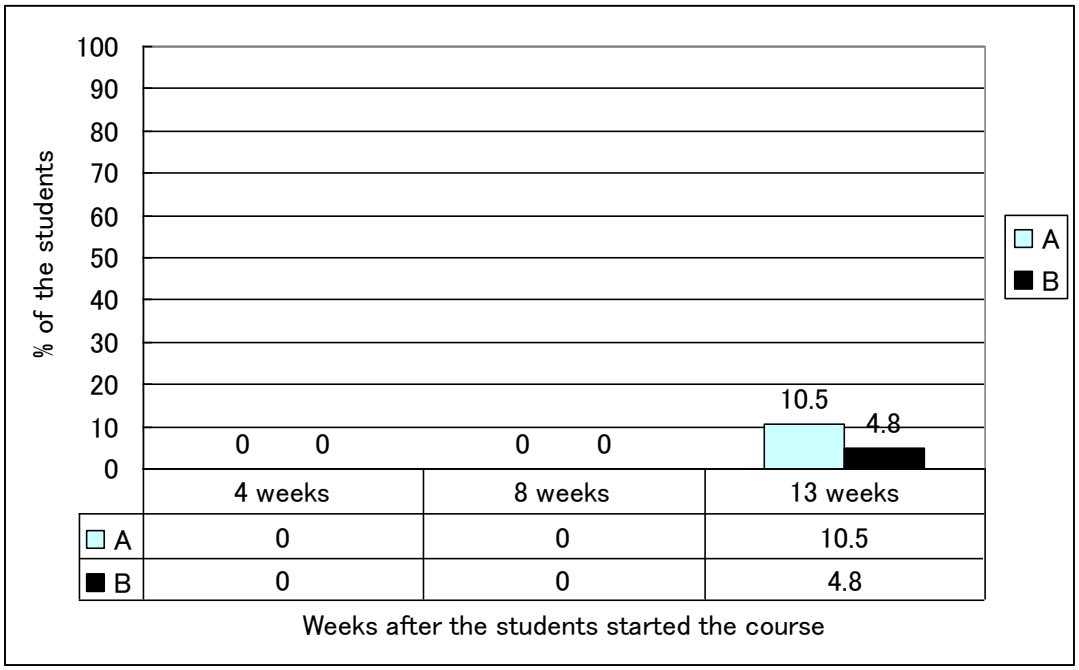


Figure 5.10. Students who were “not” motivated much

Figure 5.11. illustrates that one student in Group A started to lose motivation completely between the eighth and thirteenth week. This may have been caused by the instruction without autonomy support. The reason for losing motivation should be analyzed from the open-ended survey questions.

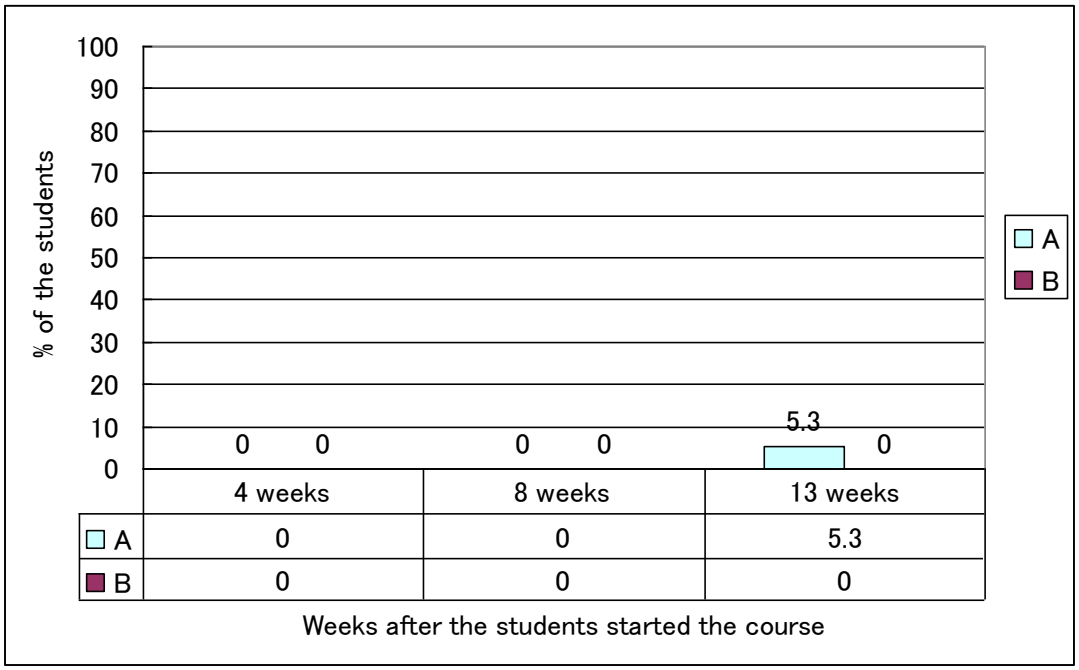


Figure 5.11. Students who were "not" motivated at all

5.3.3. Summary of the findings in students' motivational development

The collection of data from the students' perceptions of an increase in motivation illustrates that students in Group B generally continue to feel they increased their motivation throughout the 13 weeks of the course. All students, except one, experienced an increase in motivation (see Figure 5.1). This result suggests that the learner autonomy-focused instruction contributed to an increase in students'

motivation. On the other hand, students in Group A began to feel that their motivations were unchanged, or decreased, after the eighth week. Between the eighth and thirteenth week, 36.8% of students clearly felt that their motivation decreased. This result suggests that the instruction in Group A negatively affected student's motivation. It is noteworthy that they started to change their motivation to negative between Weeks 5 and 8.

The data collected about students' perceptions of their level of motivation during the 13 weeks illustrated that the students in Group B generally kept feeling that they were "moderately" motivated throughout the 13 weeks of instruction. However, at the end of the course, four students decreased their motivation to "somewhat" and one student decreased to "not much."

Overall, students in Group B kept feeling that their motivation increased, although their level of motivation was "moderately" motivated. On the other hand, the data from the students in Group A illustrate a decreased trend of motivation in the students' perception more clearly. The number of students who answered "moderately" motivated gradually shifted toward "somewhat," "not much," and "not at all" with the passage of the time. This result also suggests that the instruction in Group A did not positively affect the persistence of their motivation to learn English.

All in all, it looks like some students in both groups experienced a decrease in

their perception of levels of motivation over the thirteen week period. Although the majority of students in Group B remained to be "very much" or "moderately" motivated, the results indicated that it was very difficult to maintain the motivation for all of the students. Thus, stronger autonomy support for the maintenance of motivation to prevent the "drop out" should be provided.

5.4. Research Question 2: In what ways do the different types of learner autonomy support relate to the development of student motivation? Qualitative research into the relationship between learner autonomy support and motivation

To answer Research Question 2, I conducted an in-depth qualitative analysis of the students' answers to the open-ended questions and coded the answers to those questions according to motivational type. The coding includes the motivational constructs such as, sense of efficacy, sense of competence, and anxiety. This analysis allowed me to focus on the more detailed Research Questions 2a-2e. These research questions are discussed explicitly in Chapter 6, but here they are taken together as the comments made by the students conflated the issues in such a way that it is impossible to tease them apart.

2a. When and how does student motivational development occur in the two groups?

2b. How does a students' sense of efficacy affect their motivation to learn?

2c. What are the major reasons that relate to student motivation to learn other than the sense of efficacy?

2d. What are the major reasons for diminished student motivation toward learning?

2e. How does self-monitoring of learning affect student motivation?

2f. How does setting goals enhance student motivation to learn?

To answer Research Questions 2a-2e, the students' answers to the open-ended questions are analyzed and discussed to determine why and how the students were motivated. To address Research Question 2a, it is useful to categorize the students' answers into the five different types of regulation (external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, integrated regulation, and intrinsic motivation) in self-determination theory (SDT), as described in Section 2.3. in Chapter 2. This will help us establish whether the motivation goes from external to introjected or from external to identified. Initial answers to Research Questions 2b-2f are mentioned briefly and sporadically in the next section, but are developed in more detail in Chapter 6.

5.4.1. Students' perception after four weeks of instruction: analysis of the answers in the first questionnaire

From the statistical data presented in Sections 5.2. and 5.3., we saw that there was no significant difference in the answers of the students in Groups A and B after four weeks of instruction. To better understand the detailed information, it is necessary to examine the qualitative data collected from students'

open-ended question answers.

Question 1

For the question, “Do you feel that your motivation to study English is greater than it was at the beginning of this semester?” the reasons provided by the students who answered “yes” or “no” are presented in Appendix 8. When more than one student provided an answer, that number follows in parentheses. Most importantly, the type of regulation and factors related to motivation are described in parentheses, where possible.

Findings from Section 5.2. illustrate that students in both groups were generally “moderately” motivated and felt their motivation increased during the first to fourth week in the course. The quantitative data does not illustrate the difference between the students in Groups A and B at this stage. However, by examining the qualitative data in the students writing, several interesting points are found. First, the students in Group B that analyzed and described how they were more motivated in amount and in detail. Thus, the students in Group B described that they have “identified” regulation (five people), and “intrinsic” motivation (three people), compared to the Group A students (one “identified” and one “intrinsic”). This may be caused by the autonomy supportive instruction conducted in Group B, requiring students to monitor their learning, record their scores, and write down their learning reflections every time they take a class test.

It is noteworthy that answers representing “sense of efficacy” and “confidence to achieve” appear many times in both groups. Because of the instruction designed to review very basic grammar, students increased the sense that “I can understand the grammar” or that “I can achieve this level if I try.” Considering the proficiency level of these students in both groups, it can be said that “sense of efficacy” and “confidence to achieve or anticipation of success” are the two critical factors related to motivation.

The reasons for the negative answers were caused by either “lack of interest” or “lack of confidence” in both groups.

Question 2

For the question, “Do you study more than before (compared to the beginning of this semester)?” Some students described the reason why they studied more. This may illustrate the types of regulation they had at this stage.

The reasons provided by the students who answered “yes” or “no” are presented in Appendix 9. The answers illustrate the clear difference between the students in Group A and Group B. Most of the students in Group B described the reasons for their study in the category of “identified regulation” (eight students) or “intrinsic motivation” (two students). Only two students described the answer in the category of “external regulation.”

On the other hand, the students in Group A described the reason as either in "external regulation" or "introjected regulation." It is interesting that no students answered the question in the category of "identified regulation" or "intrinsic motivation." In addition, only four students in Group A described reasons in the open-ended field, compared to the 11 students in Group B. This is a very interesting result. Only after four weeks of instruction, the difference in the quality of regulation started to appear. It can be said that the autonomy supportive instruction to make students monitor their learning, record their scores and reflect on their own learning positively affected their competence. Competence includes analyzing their perceptions for learning, which may lead to an "identified regulation" rather than an "external" or "introjected regulation." On the other hand, it seems that students in Group A remained under the control of external factors or internal pressure. This result suggests that monitoring their learning and reflection were necessary to help students determine the reasons they want to learn.

Three of four students in Group A students got a total grade of less than 65% in this class which is considered to be unsuccessful learning. In addition, all four of the students in Group B who answered "no" got a total grade of less than 65% in the class. The reasons of this unsuccessful learning were their failure to study, lack of self-management or lack of study skills. For these students, a basic introduction of study skills including test preparation skills, time management,

and self-management skills is necessary, even in a university education.

Students in Group B who answered “no” provided the reasons such as; “Because I keep my own pace of studying” and “Because I keep the same pace of studying as before.” (2) These comments are not negative. The learner autonomy-focused instruction including study skill instruction positively affects students’ learning activities.

Question 4 (Question 3 does not a have written description)

For the question, “Do you have difficulty studying English at home? If any, please write them down,” the answers provided by the students are presented in Appendix 10.

Only four students in Group A answered this question. All the answers except for No. 3 illustrate that they need extra help with their studying skills. Seven students in Group B answered this question. The student from No. 7 wants to know how to study, but other students analyzed their weaknesses. It is interesting that the students in Group A simply expressed that they do not know what to do, but the students in Group B first reflected and analyzed their weakness in English, then asked for help. It is also interesting that only students in Group B were seeking help to study beyond the class activity, such as listening, reading newspapers, and extra material (No. 2, 3, 5, and 6). This result illustrates that these students started to form the integrated motivation with

which they self-examined the external demand or acted and tried to bring new regulation (extra work) into congruence with their values and needs.

Question 5

For the question, "Do you have any problems in the class? If any, please write them down," the answers from the students are presented in Appendix 11.

Generally, students in both groups described constructive requests for the class. No. 1 and No. 3 in Group B reflected on their learning and thoughts about the metacognitive learning strategies, or tried to expand the learning. This illustrates that these student developed their motivation into an integrated regulation.

5.4.2. Students' perception after eight weeks of instruction: analysis of the answers in the second questionnaire

From the statistical data presented in Sections 5.2. and 5.3., some differences in the answers of the students in the two groups were found after eight weeks of instruction. To obtain the detailed information, it is necessary to examine the qualitative data collected from the students' answers to the open-ended questions.

Question 1 in the second questionnaire

The next question was, “Do you feel that your motivation to study English has increased compared to the last time you answered this question?” The reasons provided by the students who answered “yes” or “no” are presented in Appendix 12. There are still some students who have external and introjected regulations in Group A. On the other hand, no students who expressed external and introjected regulations were found in Group B. In addition, students in Group A answered relatively simply, but students in Group B wrote more in detail. In Group B, eight students out of 16 illustrated that they have analyzed their learning metacognitively, for example, “Because I became able to understand the sentence structure, the chances that I can read sentences increased.” It is noteworthy that two students in Group B expressed that the instructor’s encouragement affected positively on their motivation to learn. More students in Group B claimed that they have a sense of efficacy than students in Group A. In Group B, it is generally observed that more students started to reflect and analyze their own learning and have stronger feelings for the identified regulation in Group B.

The reasons provided by the students who answered “no change” to the main question are presented also in Appendix 12. In both groups, there were some students who expressed that they did not like English. However, the No. 2 answer for Group B was not a negative answer.

Question 3 (Question 2 had no open-ended writing question)

For the question, “Do you have difficulty studying English at home or in class? If any, please write down,” the answers provided by the students are presented in Appendix 13. Although some students in both groups expressed a lack of study skills, there were some differences in the nature of the problems expressed by the students in the two groups. Group A students tended to have more immediate problems, such as particular aspects of grammar or problems related to study skills. The types of problems expressed did not change from the previous questionnaire for Group A. On the other hand, Group B students tended to have more future oriented problems, or problems outside of the class. They tended to have problems with English in general, such as listening, speaking, and taking the TOEFL test, which were not the focus of the class. This concerned the need to qualify to study abroad. This may be caused by the goal setting activity included in the learner autonomy-focused instruction. In addition, as the students increased their sense of efficacy, they may have extended the possibility of their future use of English.

5.4.3. Students’ perception after thirteen weeks of instruction: analysis of the answers in the third questionnaire

From the statistical data presented in Sections 5.2. and 5.3., significant differences in the answers of students in Groups A and Group B were discovered after thirteen weeks of instruction. To get the detailed information, it is necessary to examine the qualitative data collected from the students’ answers to

the open-ended questions in the third questionnaire.

Question 2 in the third questionnaire (Question 1 does not have a written section)

The question was, “Do you feel that your motivation has increased since the last time you answered this question?” The reasons provided by the students who answered “yes” or “no” in both groups to the question are presented in Appendix 14.

In line with the statistical analysis presented in Section 5.2.3. and Table 5.7., a significant difference in students writing between the students in Group A and the students in Group B was found. Nine students out of 11 students who answered that they increased their motivation to learn in Group A illustrated a strong introjected regulation. This indicated that although students increased their motivation during the eighth to thirteenth weeks, their types of motivation did not develop from introjected to other more self-determined forms of regulation, such as identified regulation or intrinsic motivation. Students in Group A remained more externally regulated until the end of the course.

In contrast, students in Group B showed more self-determined regulation. The students continued to illustrate the strong tendency of identified regulation, metacognitive awareness, and self-efficacy, even after 8 weeks. However, integrated regulation with new goal setting first appeared after 13 weeks. This

illustrates that two students (No. 6 and No. 7) developed their motivation to their most self-determined form of external motivation. It is possible that the instruction in Group B positively affects students in developing their motivation into a more self-determined form. In addition, one student (No. 9) demonstrated that they had an intrinsic motivation, because of the instruction. It is noteworthy that many students found that their effort was related to higher performance on the class tests; that increased their sense of efficacy.

Monitoring the immediate and positive results of their efforts may play a key role in raising their motivation to learn. Also, more students in Group B developed the ability to analyze their learning metacognitively than students in Group A. This may be caused by the autonomy support they received to reflect on their own learning in the learner autonomy-focused instruction.

The reasons of the students who answered "no" to the main question are also presented in Appendix 14. In both groups, some students who answered "no" had a positive reason, such as they have already been motivated enough. However, negative answers in both groups indicated a lack of confidence and a failure to have a sense of efficacy. One student in Group B (No.2) illustrated that the motivation remained external.

Question 5 (Questions 3 and 4 do not contain written parts)

Question 5 was, "Did you try to get good marks according to the evaluation

system?" The reasons of the students who answered "yes" are presented in Appendix 15. Although there was no statistically significant difference found (see Section 5.2.3. and Table 5.10.), the students' answers in writing illustrate the difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B. Many students in both groups tried to get good marks because they needed them for credit. However, there were many other reasons provided in Group B than Group A.

More students in Group B expressed the desire to achieve better marks strongly, using words such as "as well as possible." They expressed a more positive attitude towards the challenge of obtaining hard-to-get good scores than did students in Group A. In addition, more students in Group B recognized the importance of exerting effort in each class. Some students in Group B tried to get good marks, not only for the evaluation, but also to facilitate their progress in learning English. One student appreciated the evaluation system, because he could see his results and his progress objectively. The wider variety of reasons made by Group B students indicated that the learner autonomy-focused instruction appeared to help students in developing the metacognitive analysis of their learning.

The learner autonomy-focused instruction promoted students' monitoring their own learning after each class test. This appeared to support students positively in setting higher goals, challenging them more, and having them recognize the

importance of exerting effort in each class.

The reasons provided by the students who answered “no” to the main question are also presented in Appendix 15. It is noteworthy that most of the students who answered “no” had not understood the evaluation system well. Although all of the students in Group A were told about the evaluation system many times very clearly, given a score sheet to fill in, and told to record their scores, they were not forced to write down the scores in class, unlike in the learner autonomy-focused instruction in Group B. These results indicated that it is not effective enough to just “recommend” the students to monitor their learning. It is necessary to make them write down their scores each time after the test in class with the supervision of the instructor for the students who were externally regulated. More aggressive autonomy support was required for students in Group A.

Group B students who answered “no” appeared to understand the evaluation system itself, but lost interest in making effort to get good scores. These results in both Groups A and B illustrate that the students were not being sufficiently responsible for their learning. They tended not to think seriously about the purpose, goals, or consequences of their learning. These students appeared to fail in developing the type of regulation from external to other more self-determined types of regulation.

Question 6 in the third questionnaire

For the question “Did you plan your learning goal?” the goals stated by the students are presented in Appendix 16. The two groups of students set similar goals, but the students in Group B tended to set higher goals than students in Group A. Considering the minimal passing mark was 60%, students in Group B seemed to have more confidence in their learning ability.

Question 7 in the third questionnaire

With the question, “Did you always know your accumulated scores?” students were also asked “Why are you studying English?” The answers provided by the students are presented in Appendix 17. Students in both groups had common reasons, such as “to get credit for this class” or “for the future.” However, Group B students were more analytical in their learning and had more of a variety in their reasons. Group B students tended to imagine how they could learn and use English in the future, such as “to communicate with people in English,” “to go abroad,” “to use English more fluently,” “to master English grammar,” and “to be able to use basic English.” This analytical way of thinking in their learning may be caused by the training of monitoring and reflecting on their own learning in the learner autonomy-focused instruction in Group B.

Question 8 in the third questionnaire

Students were presented with the following question: “Were you able to study as much as you wanted?” They were then asked why (or why not) they were able to

study as much as they wanted. The reasons provided by the students are presented in Appendix 18. Many students in both groups felt that they were able to study as much as they wanted, because they were able to understand the course content clearly. Also, many students in both groups felt the sense of efficacy towards their learning. It is assumed that the feeling of understanding of the course content and sense of efficacy are closely related to the feeling of success in learning. This sense of efficacy may have been caused by the instruction itself rather than the autonomy support.

It is noteworthy that some students in Group B metacognitively analyzed their own learning and determined the meaning of grammar to master English or establish their own way of learning English. This indicates that these students developed integrated regulations, which is the most self-determined type of external regulation after 13 weeks of instruction.

It is also important to gain an understanding of the reasons for unsuccessful learning. The reasons provided by the students who answered “no” to the main question are also presented in Appendix 18. Most of the students in Group A expressed that their unsuccessful course of study was caused by their lack of study habits or lack of study skills. It seems to be very important to support students to establish good study habits and support them to learn how they can study successfully. On the other hand, Group B students tended to expect to study more than just for this class. They seemed to have set a higher level of

achievement as their goal, therefore they felt they had not been able to study as much as they had wanted. For the highly motivated students to seek extra work, the instructor should have included suggestions for further study.

Question 9 in the third questionnaire

Question 9 was, "Do you think that you have improved your proficiency in English as compared to before?" The reasons provided by the students are presented in Appendix 19. Although approximately half of the students in both groups felt that they were not able to study as much as they wanted, a majority of students in both groups expressed that they had improved their proficiency in English as compared to before. There was no statistical difference between students in Group A and the students in Group B. Regardless of the level of satisfaction with their self-study, the students in both groups felt a sense of improvement during the course (see Table 5.13. and Table 5.14. in Section 5.2.3.).

The students in both groups provided similar reasons. The reason for the sense of improvement lies mostly in understanding and becoming able to use grammar in reading. Before this course began, these students may have not learned grammar with the intention to use it. They may have been told about grammar separately from reading sentences in their high school days. It is interesting that a majority of students attributed the reason of having a sense of improvement to what they become able to do, not just to the improvement in their scores on tests. Thus, it is important that the instructor includes activities enabling students to realize

what they became able to do.

It is noteworthy that only students in Group B mentioned their feelings towards learning English itself, such as a "negative feeling towards learning English has decreased" or "I feel like reading more English." Hence, they may have developed some degree of intrinsic motivation.

The percentage itself is small, but there were students who did not feel that they experienced an improvement of proficiency in English. Of those, students in Group A provided the following reasons, "My level of understanding English was not changed" and "I do not understand the grammar, which I used to understand." A Group B student who answered "no" to the main question provided the reason "For my case, my level of English was highest last year when I took the entrance exam." For these students, instruction in 13 weeks did not affect their sense of improvement.

Question 10 in the third questionnaire

Question 10 was, "Do you think learning English is interesting?" The number of students who answered "yes" was significantly larger in Group B than in Group A (see Table 5.15. in Section 5.2.3.). The reasons provided by the students who had answered "yes" are presented in Appendix 20. In both groups, students expressed that they felt that learning English was interesting because they were able to read passages. The students in Group B tended to be more analytical. In

Group B, students precisely expressed that they came to understand the grammar; that was the major reason why they felt that learning English was interesting. This may illustrate that the learner autonomy-focused instruction made students feel that they understood the grammar and that promoted them to feel that learning English was interesting. This indicates that a sense of efficacy, or sense of achievement, is closely related to the increase in interests in learning. It seems to be essential to make students feel a sense of efficacy. Promoting students' interest in learning is not just about developing interesting instructions, but it is also about letting students feel that they can understand what they learn.

Looking at the negative answers, the reasons provided by the students who answered "no" are also presented in Appendix 20. It is quite clear that failure to have a sense of efficacy, the feeling that it is difficult to learn, and failure to have a sense of achievement is the major reasons for a lack of interest in learning. It appears to be very important to make students feel a sense of efficacy. In addition, for the students who feel there is difficulty in learning, appropriate support is essential in the early state of instruction.

Question 11 in the third questionnaire

Question 11 was, "Do you want to become more proficient in English?" Almost all of the students in both groups answered "yes" (see Table 5.16. in Section 5.2.3.). Although 63.2% of the students in Group A expressed that they did not find

learning English interesting and 89.5% of the students in Group A wanted to become more proficient in English. The reasons provided by the students who answered "yes" are presented in Appendix 21. Many students in both groups expressed the view that English was necessary for their future. However, more students in Group B, than in Group A, were analytical and provided other reasons as well. More students in Group B than in Group A wanted to extend their learning beyond grammar, which was the main learning content in the instruction. They wanted to improve their speaking, listening, and writing skills, which was not the focus of the instruction. This indicates that Group B students expressed the general desire to become proficient in English and a more precise motivation to become proficient in specific skills in using English. The learner autonomy-focused instruction appears to be successful in helping students develop external regulation to a more self-determined regulation, such as integrated regulation. In addition, more students in Group B wanted to apply their English skills in real life. Some of them felt that they wanted to improve, not because they had to, but because it is enjoyable or fun. This illustrates that some students successfully had intrinsic motivations to learn English.

Question 12 in the third questionnaire

Question 12 was, "Do you like the system of taking a class test in every class?" Significantly more students in Group B answered "yes" (see Table 5.17 in Section 5.2.3.). The comments provided by the students who answered "yes" or "no" are presented in Appendix 22. From students' comments on the system of evaluation,

it is noteworthy that Group B students understood the multiple purposes of the system better than Group A students. For example, they understood that the system was designed to record class attendance as high, to help students recognize their improvement, review the previous lessons, review their weak points, develop a study plan, and get a good final evaluation, as well as to encourage daily study at home. Group B students generally made better use of the system for learning, than did Group A students.

The autonomy support included written encouragement from the instructor after each test, or the study skills of keeping study logs in the learner autonomy-focused instruction that may have influenced the students' attitudes. It appears that appropriate autonomy support is necessary for instruction.

Question 13 in the third questionnaire

Question 13 was, "Do you want to keep studying English?" A majority of students in both groups answered "yes." There was no significant statistical difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B (see Table 5.18, in Section 5.2.3.). The reasons provided by the students are presented in Appendix 23. Many of the reasons given by the two groups were similar. For example, students in both groups claimed to believe that they could use English in their future careers. Some students in both groups mentioned their motivation to keep studying in relation to what they learned during the course. For example, they do not want to forget what they learned, they wanted to complete the

knowledge, or they want to be better in using English. However, Group B students tended to have motivation to study specifically related to their successful learning experience during the course. They learned they could improve if they tried hard with proper learning skills. In other words, they discovered that learning is rewarding and appeared to have developed a sense of accomplishment. It seems that they wanted to apply what they had learned to other things, such as understanding grammar better, reading more smoothly, speaking and writing better, and taking the TOEIC test. In this sense, they appeared to have developed integrated regulation, because they evaluated what they had learned and endorsed that with the values, goals, and needs that they already possess (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Looking at the negative answers to the question, the reasons provided by the students who answered "no" are presented in Appendix 23.

Students in Group A who answered negatively expressed that they were not able to have a positive prospect toward their future learning, or the need of English. This may be caused by their unsuccessful learning experience during the course. Only one student in Group A still illustrated a motivation to improve, though the student needed a more successful learning experience to support this motivation.

Question 14 in the third questionnaire

Question 14 was, "Do you want to take elective, higher-level English classes?"

Although the number is slightly higher in Group B, around half of the students in both groups answered "yes" (see Table 5.19 in Section 5.2.3.). There was no significant statistical difference between the students in Group A and the students in Group B. Elective classes are not compulsory classes and are designed for students who have enough competence in basic grammar. The reasons provided by the students who answered "yes" are presented in Appendix 24. It seems that the answers in both groups are similar. However, students in Group A tended to provide answers that were not clearly related to learning, such as "to look better for job hunting purposes," "be good for me," "to get credit." On the other hand, all of the answers in Group B are related to the learning itself, or higher goal setting, such as going abroad, future career, or taking a TOEIC test. Students in Group B appeared to have identified the meaning of learning English more analytically and have evaluated and endorsed it with the goals and needs that they possess. In this sense, the students in Group B have developed an integrated regulation more than the students in Group A.

Looking at the negative answers, the reasons provided by the students who answered "no" are also presented in Appendix 24. Group A students tended to have a fear of being failed in a high-level class. Some of the students in Group B wanted to tackle a language other than English. When combined with the results of Question 13 ("Do you want to keep studying English?"), it appears that most of the students in both groups wanted to keep studying, but around half of the students wanted to keep studying by themselves at their own pace at a suitable

level. Also, students in Group B who answered “yes” tended to have a clearer and more specific purpose relating to learning.

5.4.4. Summary of the analysis of students’ perceptions toward their motivation and learning

5.4.4. a. Motivational development in Group A students in the process of time

Qualitative data collected from the students writing in the questionnaire illustrates the noticeable trend in the motivational change of Group A students. In the first period, four weeks after the beginning of the course, students had motivation supported by a sense of efficacy and confidence in learning and the anticipation of achievement in the class, which they had developed during the course. They felt various types of motivation, such as introjected regulation, identified regulation and even intrinsic motivation. When it comes to their reasons for making effort, they have a strong tendency towards external regulation and introjected regulation.

In the second period, eight weeks after the beginning of the course, students had motivation supported by a sense of efficacy and anxiety. More students expressed anxiety toward their learning, rather than a sense of efficacy. They started to experience failure, or difficulty in learning, thus, the fear of failure had become a major reason for learning. Generally, they had developed external regulation and

introjected regulation.

In the third period, thirteen weeks into the course, students had motivation that was strongly supported by the fear of failing the class. Generally, they felt that they had not been able to study as they wanted and experienced failure in learning. Thus, they had developed a strong introjected regulation toward learning.

Examining this trend, it can be said that the instruction in Group A did not positively affect the development of the students' motivation towards a more self-determined direction. Students first had a sense of efficacy and anticipation of achievement in that they started to experience repeated failure, developing a strong feeling of anxiety. At the end of the course, they developed introjected regulation. Students wrote their feelings, or situations, generally simpler than students in Group B. This indicates that they did not develop a metacognitive awareness enough towards their own learning.

5.4.4.b. Motivational development in Group B students in the process of time

Students in Group B, taught in the learner autonomy-focused instruction, illustrated a different trend in motivational development from Group A students. In the first period, four weeks after the beginning of the course, students had

motivation supported by a sense of efficacy, confidence in learning, anticipation of achievement, and identification of the meaning of learning. They have various types of regulations: introjected regulation, identified regulation and intrinsic motivation. Compared to the students in Group A, more students in Group B have identified regulation at this stage. They analyzed their learning patterns, weak points, and the importance of learning basic grammar. When it comes to the reason for making effort in learning English, a majority of students indicated identified regulation and some students indicated intrinsic motivation and external regulation.

In the second period, eight weeks after the beginning of the course, students had motivation supported by a sense of efficacy and metacognitive analysis in their learning. They generally developed identified regulation. No students had external or introjected regulation. It is very interesting that about the half of the students metacognitively analyzed their own learning. They came to understand what they had mastered and what they had not, leading to the strong sense of efficacy. At the same time, they found out what they had to do to improve more. They understood that their effort affects their results and they began to feel that they were making progress. They generally developed strong confidence in learning. Some students expressed that the encouragement by the instructor affected their motivation.

In the third period, thirteen weeks into the course, students had a motivation

strongly supported by self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness. At this stage, most of the students indicated that they had developed metacognitive awareness in their learning. They showed a strong tendency of identified regulation. Some students had integrated regulation with new goal settings and intrinsic motivation. Most of the students monitored and metacognitively analyzed their learning. They found that their effort had resulted in better performance on the class tests and that increased their sense of efficacy.

The trend of motivational development in Group B students generally indicated that the learner autonomy-focused instruction positively affected raising students' motivations. The types of student motivation, including introjected regulation, varied. Students tended to have more self-determined regulation and identified regulation from the second stage. At the end of the course, most of the students developed identified regulation with some integrated regulation and intrinsic motivation. There were no external and introjected regulations found at this stage.

5.5. Research Question 3: What effect does learner autonomy-focused instruction (including metacognitive awareness-raising and the use of extrinsic rewards) have on the students' performance on class tests?

5.5.1. The relationship between students' performance on class tests and students' motivational development.

To answer Research Question 3, the mean average value of students' scores on class tests conducted in the course in Groups A and B were compared. It is meaningful to gain an understanding of the relationship between the students' performance and their motivational development. The students' mean averages were examined in relation to the qualitative data in Section 5.2.

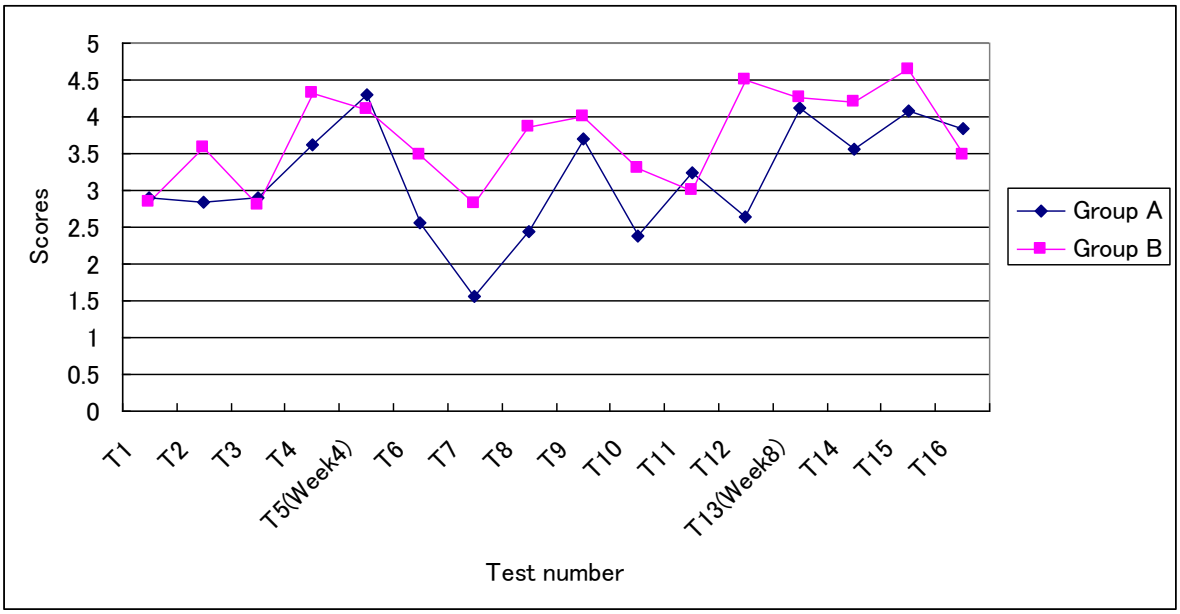


Figure 5.12. The mean average value of class tests in Groups A and B

Figure 5.12. illustrates the comparison between Group A students and Group B students in their mean scores of class tests. In the first period, from Test 1 to Test 5 (from the first week to the fourth week), the average scores were not significantly different between Group A students and Group B students. At this stage, the types of regulations varied, including introjected regulation, identified regulation and intrinsic motivation in both Group A and B students (see Section

5.4.1.).

In the second period, from Test 5 to Test 13 (from the fifth week to the eighth week), the scores of Group A students were lower than that of Group B students. This illustrates that students in Group A experienced repeated failure on class tests. During this period, the students in Group A tended to express anxiety toward their learning and developed external and interjected regulation (see Section 5.4.2.). On the other hand, students in Group B performed better, having higher scores than Group A students during this period. More students in Group B were observed that they had developed identified regulation supported by self efficacy and metacognitive awareness and the ability to analyze their own learning than students in Group A (see Section 5.4.2.).

In the third period, from Test 13 to Test 16 (from the ninth week to the thirteenth week), the difference in the scores became smaller. However, the scores for Group A students remained lower than the scores for Group B students. During this period, students in Group A experienced a strong fear of failing in the class. This led them to develop a strong introjected regulation. The increase in scores may be explained by this strong introjected regulation. They might have studied harder than in the second period, because of the pressure and anxiety. Students in Group B kept having high scores during this period. They showed a strong tendency towards identified regulation and some students developed integrated regulation with new goal setting and intrinsic motivation. At this stage, most of

the students indicated that they had developed a metacognitive awareness in their learning (see Section 5.4.3.). During the last two weeks of class, the mean average value dropped. Some students had already reached scores high enough for getting credit for this class; that might be the reason for the lower scores than before.

From the data shown above, it was found that the learner autonomy-focused instruction had a better influence on the students' performance on class tests. Students that were learning in the learner autonomy-focused instruction generally had better scores than students in Group A. Students' scores in the learner autonomy-focused instruction generally became higher towards the end of the course. At the same time, they started to develop identified regulation from the second stage. Most of the students developed identified regulation with some exception of more self-determined types of regulation, such as integrated and intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, students in Group A experienced repeated failure on the class tests, especially during the second stage. It was that period where they had developed strong introjected regulation. The introjected regulation, however, might have become the motivation for those students to study more, resulting in better scores in the third period than in the second period. It was found that the students' performance on the class tests and the types of regulation they had developed were closely related.

5.6. Qualitative investigation of individual cases

This section of the report examines data from the individual cases. Although the data from the students, as a group, have indicated the general trend, it is not possible to arrive at an in-depth understanding of the reality of learning and motivational development that occurred in each individual, solely on the basis of the group data. As a result, the case studies are examined in more detail to provide a holistic description of the language learning of individuals in a way that is rarely possible in group research (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

An extensive amount of data was collected and analyzed for each of the individuals that took part in the study. The purpose of the individual data collection process was to investigate the:

1. students' language learning belief in relation to sense of competence, attribution, expectancy to success, and anxiety;
2. motivational development of students with specific features in learning and with different perceived levels of motivation;
3. motivational factors of students with specific features in learning;
4. relationship between motivational development and the level of each student's performance on the class tests throughout the course;
5. components of learner autonomy support required for students with specific features in learning; and
6. common characteristics of successful and unsuccessful students.

In this section, the similarities and differences between successful students (two from Group A and two from Group B) and unsuccessful students (two from Group A and two from Group B) are investigated. The focus points to be analysed include students' motivational development in the self-determination theory (SDT) framework and three important psychological needs in SDT (self-efficacy, perception of competence, and metacognitive awareness towards learning). After the analysis of the successful and unsuccessful students, possible learner autonomy support for the students with specific characteristics is discussed.

The students discussed in this chapter were selected based on their total scores on the class tests. Successful students were selected from those who earned the highest and the second highest scores. Unsuccessful students were selected from those who earned the lowest and the second lowest scores. While they were chosen because of their scores, the students selected for the case studies illustrate interesting features.

The data from individual students includes the answers to the pre-course open-ended questionnaire filled out by all students; the data from the grammar diagnostic tests conducted at the beginning of the course; the answers from the open-ended section of three questionnaires; students' scores on class tests; and the instructor's observations.

In the pre-course open-ended questionnaire, students were asked to write the

answers to three questions: 1. Please describe your learning history and analyze your competence in English?; 2. Why do you learn English?; and 3. How do you want to learn in this class? If you have special requests to the instruction, please write them. Students were asked to write the answers to all of the open-ended questions in Japanese, considering their low level of proficiency in writing English.

5.6.1. Successful students in Group A

Student A: A student who was successful in terms of performance on class tests, but expressed anxiety, lack of confidence, and introjected regulation.

Student A appeared to be motivated by introjected regulation with anxiety and lack of confidence. This characteristic was inferred from the data in the pre-course open-ended questionnaire. Student A did not have confidence in grammar, vocabulary and listening comprehension, reflecting on the past six years in high school where she thought she had not progressed as much as she would have liked. From the data in the questionnaire, it was found that she attributed her perceived low proficiency in English to her improper way of learning English; she was not able to use English aside from memorising grammar. In this way, she had strong anxiety about her language learning skills. At the same time, the data from grammar diagnostic tests indicated that she has sufficient metacognitive skills to analyse her proficiency in English. At this stage,

autonomy support to help her establish a favourable learning strategy instruction should have been provided to diminish her anxiety about learning English.

Turning now to the motivational development of Student A, the data from questionnaire 1 (after test 5), questionnaire 2 (after test 13), and questionnaire 3 (after test 16) indicated that Student A's perceived level of motivation was "moderately", "moderately" and "very much," respectively, while she perceived that her motivation kept rising. In light of her relatively low scores during the second period, she might have changed her way of preparing for the test.

In terms of the type of motivational development, the data from the four questionnaires, including the pre-course questionnaire, indicated that she failed to develop the type of motivation towards more self-determined direction. Student A's description in the third questionnaire after the end of the course revealed evidence of her introjected regulation. She stated "I wanted to study to avoid the future problems. I would keep studying because I felt my English was not sufficient at all." She described her perception about English as "If I stop studying, I would be even less proficient in English". The failure of motivational development in the self-determined direction was also proved by the data, indicating that her hope to go abroad, which she had expressed in the pre-course questionnaire, did not appear on the third questionnaire. In order to help Student A develop motivation in a more self-determined direction, she should

have been given more autonomy support.

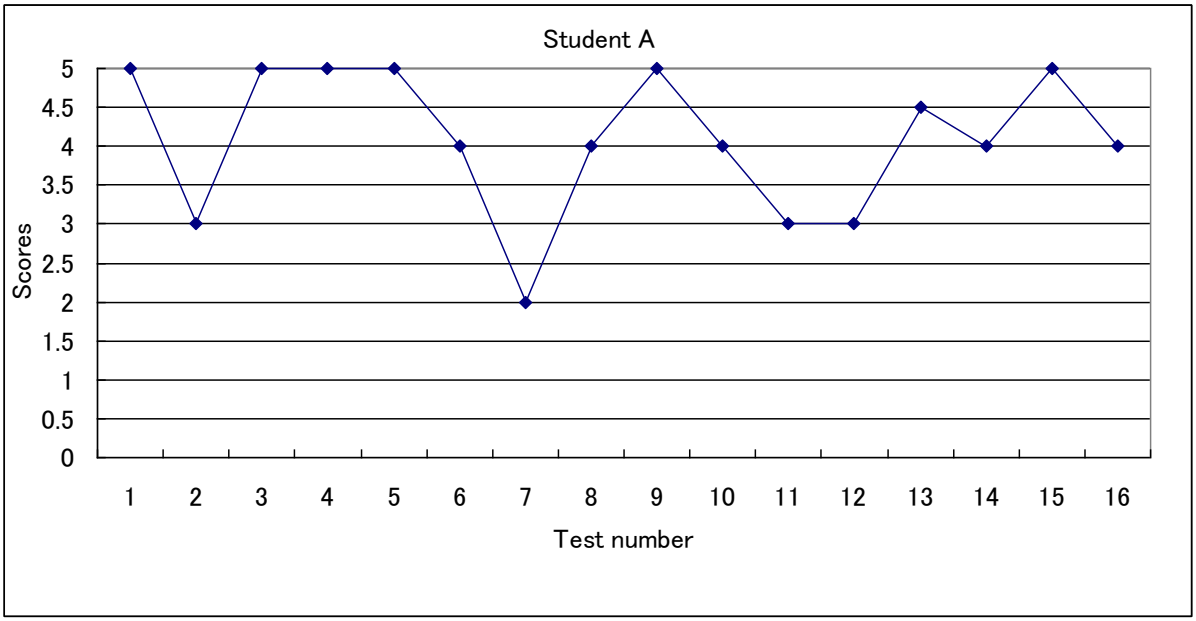


Figure 5.13. Class test scores for Student A

As Figure 5.13. indicates, Student A earned generally good scores. The reasons for her relatively high scores may be the cognitive learning strategies that she had already gained, as found in the questionnaires (1-3). She stated that she appreciated having a test in each class because it made it easy for her to establish a regular study habit. Her metacognitive skills of analysing her own learning (as shown on the grammar diagnostic test) may have contributed to her rather high total scores. However, the data indicates that the scores in the second period (from Test 5 to Test 12) were the most unstable. The relatively stable scores from Test 13 to the end were correlated with the perception of the increased level of Student A's motivation, from "moderately" to "very much" in the third period. Judging from the data, the provision of learner autonomy

support for Student A to maintain the favourable performance in the second period was recommended. This support can take the form of counselling, having her keep a learning journal for the reflection of her learning, and participating in group study.

The motivational factors of Student A were inferred from the data from three questionnaires. Student A stated that her motivation was enhanced because she was able to understand the grammar very well in the instruction. She seemed to gain a sense of efficacy in learning grammar. However, this sense of efficacy was domain-specific (understanding of grammar). Although she stated that she noticed the improvement in her understanding of grammar, she was still dissatisfied with her proficiency in other areas. Her self-description reveals that Student A has very low level of L2 Self perception; it should be compared to her *Ought-to L2 Self* (see Section 3.2.). For this case, she should have received more instruction in communication skills and autonomy support (including counselling) to identify her specific needs.

Student A did not communicate with the other students or the instructor. She did not ask any questions during, or after, the class.

Several times I asked her "Do you have any problems? Is everything OK?" while she was translating Japanese into English. She just said, "I am fine", without smiling. She seldom talked with other students. I did not know whether she was satisfied with my teaching or not. (Field notes, 4 November 2008)

This field notes indicates that she did not have a sense of "relatedness" among the three basic psychological needs in the SDT framework. Although there is no empirical data in the present study, relatedness-oriented class activities, such as group work or discussion, may develop the type of motivation in a more self-determined direction.

In summary, Student A failed to overcome her sense of inferiority and anxiety about learning English, despite her relatively good scores on the class tests. Of the three basic psychological needs, the only one that Student A seemed to have was "autonomy". For students with anxiety, like Student A, autonomy support can improve their learning outcomes, and encourage them to set higher and expanded future goals.

Student B: A student who was successful in terms of performance on class tests, but maintained an externally regulated and decreased motivation.

Student B was distinguished by his passive attitude and apparent external regulation. In the all open-ended parts of the questionnaires, he did not express himself in detail, indicating his lack of relatedness with the instructor. In addition, it was observed that he did not communicate with the instructor or with other students in the class. The data from the pre-course grammar diagnostic test indicated his metacognitive analysis of language learning was not sufficient; he wrote "I do not do well at all. Please teach me everything".

In terms of Student B's motivational development, the data from questionnaires 1-3 indicated that his perceived level of motivation decreased as "moderate" (questionnaire 1), moderate" (questionnaire 2), and "somewhat" (questionnaire 3). However, he perceived that his motivation rose during the first period, because he found the instruction easy to understand.

In terms of the type of motivation, the data from the questionnaires indicated that he originally had external regulation (in order to obtain the credit), and he maintained that external regulation throughout the course. In the third questionnaire, he described his hope of becoming better at English, because he believed that English was necessary for his future life. However, from his description, it is unclear whether it is just a hope, or a real motivation, to continue learning English, because he scarcely described his belief about learning English.

It was very difficult for me to talk with him, because he answered "nothing particular" whenever I asked whether he had any problems. He did not seem to have any intention to think about himself. (Field notes, 18 November 2008)

For externally regulated students that have a passive attitude towards learning, autonomy support, including reflection or metacognitive awareness-raising instructions, should have been provided at this stage. These instructions could comprise activities, such as autobiographical writing and a guided learner diary,

to foster reflective thinking (Karlsson and Kjisik, 2007; Nunan et al., 1999).

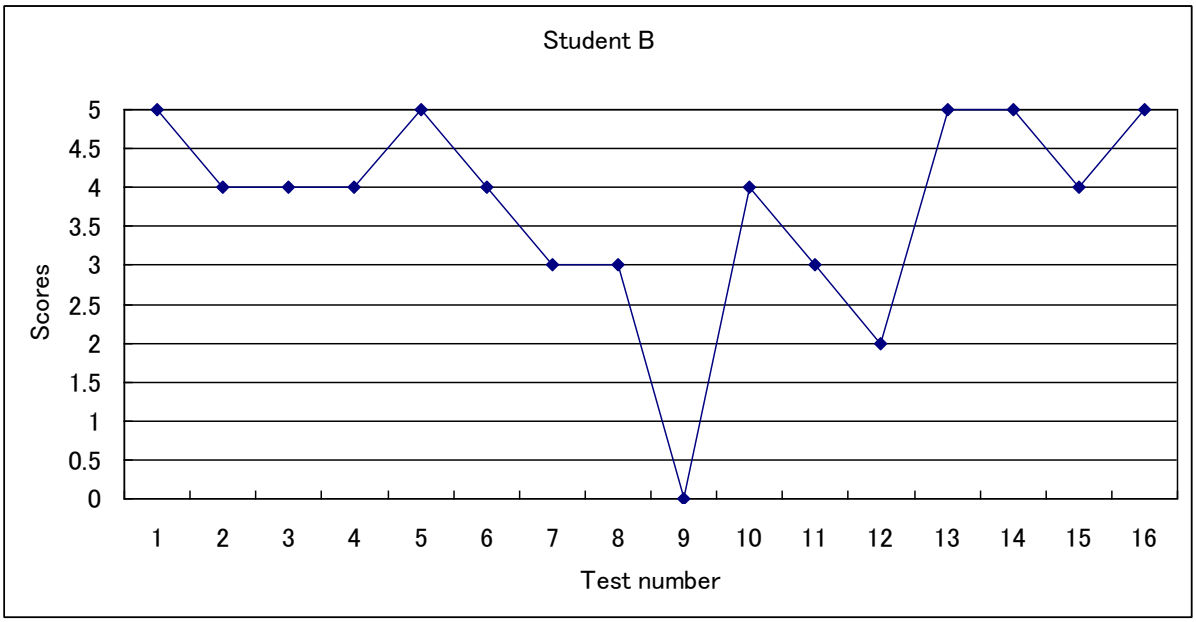


Figure 5.14. Class test scores for Student B

* Student B did not take the test 9 because he was absent.

Figure 5.14 depicts the scores on the class tests taken by Student B. He earned generally high scores for the first period (from Test 1 to Test 5) and for the third period (from Test 13 to Test 16). However, his scores decreased during the second period (from Test 5 to Test 13). This decline "in the second period" was also identified in Student A. Strong autonomy support should be provided even for successful students to maintain high performance in the second period. Reflecting on his relatively low performance during the second period, Student B

might have changed his attitude towards preparation for the class test during the third period. This was supported by his description in the third questionnaire: "I wanted to avoid failing the class, so I counted the scores carefully". Again, this improved performance was supported by external (he needed the credit) and introjected (for fear of failing the class) regulations.

Despite his passive attitude towards learning, it is noteworthy that he started to find English interesting, because he started to understand basic grammar towards the end of the course. A sense of efficacy and a sense of competence in terms of understanding grammar positively affected his feelings about English. However, this sense of efficacy and sense of competence did not lead to a more self-determined regulation or a perception of a higher level of motivation.

The interesting finding from the data from Student B is that it is possible that a sense of efficacy does not affect a student's motivation if he or she has a strong external regulation. In addition, if the strength of the regulation is sufficient, it is possible for the students to perform well, regardless of the type of motivation.

According to descriptions in the questionnaires, it was found that Student B only obtained a limited "competence" in learning grammar among the three basic needs in the SDT framework. Autonomy support focusing on "relatedness" with the instructor and other students may be important in enhancing and developing motivation in a more self-determined direction.

5.6.2. A successful student in Group B

Student C: A student who was successful both in performance and motivational development and who possessed sufficient learning strategies from the beginning.

This is a successful student in Group B who had learner autonomy support throughout the course. Data from four questionnaires, including the pre-course questionnaire, indicated that Student C possessed some confidence in her competence in English, but had some anxiety about the level of instruction. Student C was marked by a high level of metacognitive awareness of her own learning and her willingness to seek help. This was found in her grammar diagnostic test. She analysed which parts of grammar need deeper understanding, demonstrating her strong metacognitive skills.

I did very well in analysing the sentence patterns, although it was difficult in differentiating the types of infinitives (i.e., adjectival or adverbial). I don't think I understood this point well, so please teach me step by step. (Written comments by Student C on the grammar diagnostic test at the beginning of the course, translated into English by the author)

In terms of the perceived level of motivation, Student C's motivation stayed "moderate" from the beginning to the end of the course. However, her perception of motivation kept increasing, compared to each of the previous questionnaires.

Turning to the type of motivational development, Student C originally had introjected regulation. This was identified in her description in the pre-course open-ended questionnaire. She selected English as a subject because it seemed easier than other more difficult languages that she had not learned yet. She emphasised that she had a sense of inferiority in learning grammar, claiming that she might not be able to keep up with the pace of the instruction. In the first period, she developed identified regulation, stating that she was motivated because the explanation of grammar was very slow and easy to understand. Her anxiety about the pace of instruction seemed to be diminished at this stage. She maintained identified regulation in the second period and at the end of the course. She developed integrated regulation, stating that she wanted to learn other skills such as listening comprehension.

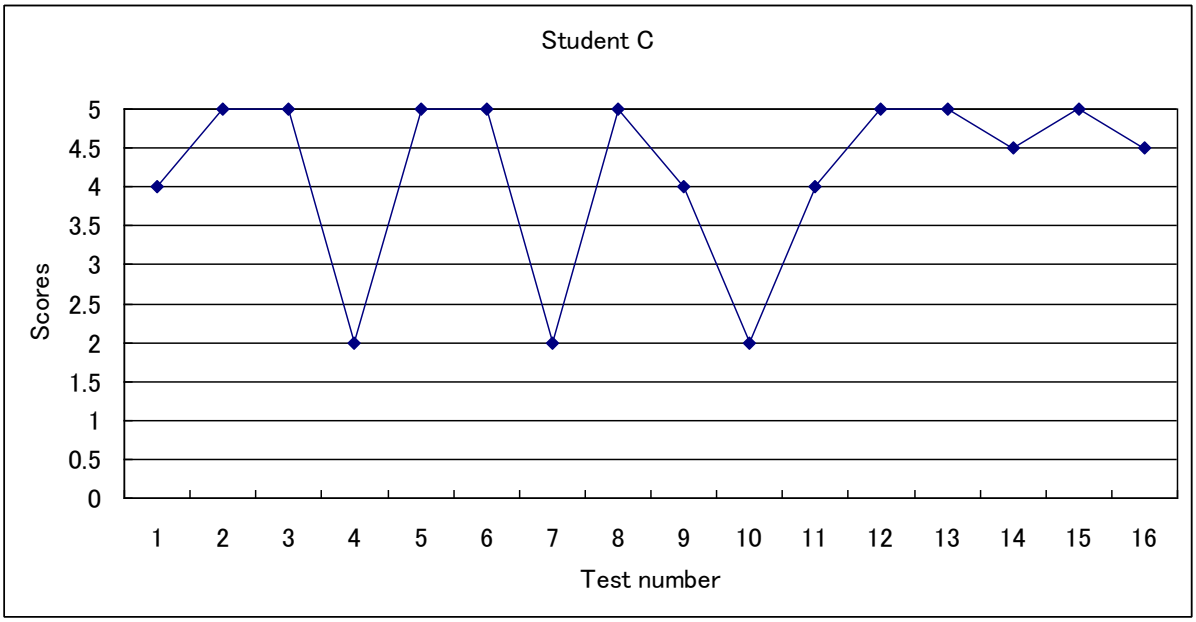


Figure 5.15. Class test scores for Student C

Student C's scores in the first period (Tests 1 through 5) and the second period (Tests 5 through 13) were unstable. Her scores ranged from 2 to 5 points. However, her scores started to increase and became stable from Test 12 onwards. This change was supported by her description in the third questionnaire, "reflecting on the unstable scores during the first and second period, I decided to obtain full marks in every test".

Student C's motivational factors were identified by the data from three questionnaires. Student C obtained a sense of competence in learning English in class during the first period, and then developed a metacognitive awareness of her own learning in the second period. In this period, she found which part of grammar she mastered and where she needed more understanding; these findings increased her motivation. At the end of the course, she stated that she found learning English interesting, because she perceived progress in interpreting English sentences. She attributed this progress to the understanding of grammar, about which she had originally had a sense of inferiority.

Student C was observed to have good communication with other students and the instructor.

She asked other students for help in confirming the correct answers and asked questions of me. She seemed to be satisfied with my teaching. She said, "I understood well because you taught me very slowly and clearly. (Field notes, 18 November 2008)

On the basis of this observation, it was determined that she achieved "relatedness" with the students and with the instructor.

In terms of the initial data, Student C demonstrated an ideal trajectory of motivational development, as described in the SDT framework. First, she had anxiety and introjected regulation, then she developed an identified regulation. By the end of the course, her motivation had expanded to master listening and strengthening the grammar she had learned. In this sense, she developed integrated regulation.

It should be noted that Student C had very good management skills for learning and a sufficient level of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies, including a help-seeking skill. This may have contributed to her high performance on class tests. However, looking at the score pattern of Student C, her performance in the first half of the course was quite unstable. The instability resolved from Test 10 onwards.

Her expectation to succeed and her diminished anxiety towards learning (obtained during the first period), metacognitive awareness of her own learning (obtained in the second period), building of sense of efficacy, and positive effort attribution (obtained in the third period), significantly contributed to maintaining and enhancing Student C's motivation and performance on class

tests. The learner autonomy support, including cognitive strategies instruction, metacognitive awareness-raising instruction and positive feedback, were demonstrated to be beneficial to Student C. Student C had met all of her basic needs for "autonomy", "competence", and "relatedness".

Student D: A student who was successful, both in performance and motivational development, with initial problems in learning strategies.

This is another case of a successful student in Group B. Student D appeared to be externally regulated, with high levels of anxiety and no sense of competence in learning English. This characteristic was inferred from the data in the pre-course open-ended questionnaire. Her original motivation to learn English was to obtain enough credits for graduation. However, from the beginning, she had very good metacognitive skills in reflecting and analysing her learning. In addition, she demonstrated the skills for proper help-seeking behaviour.

In terms of motivation, Student D's motivation was consistently "moderate" from beginning to end. However, her perception of motivation kept increasing.

"I often felt that I was able to understand in class, and I started to feel that learning English was interesting" (in the first questionnaire).
"I understood the grammar which I had not understood before, and then I felt learning English was interesting" (in the second questionnaire).

These descriptions indicated that a sense of competence and a sense of efficacy

enhanced Student D's motivation.

Turning to the type of motivation, like Student C, Student D demonstrated the ideal trajectory of motivational development as described in the SDT framework. She had an external regulation at the beginning, followed by developing an intrinsic motivation caused by a sense of efficacy.

Student D smiled and told me, "Oh, I understood very well". I felt very happy to hear that. She was very cheerful. However, she did not seem to review the contents at home, so I told her to do so. (Field notes, 14 November 2008)

Through the instruction in the first period, her anxiety about learning English seemed to diminish. Towards the end of the course, she expressed her hope to go abroad, and her purpose for learning English changed to make use of English for her future life, which became her new motivational factor. In this way, she developed both intrinsic motivation and integrated regulation by the end of the course.

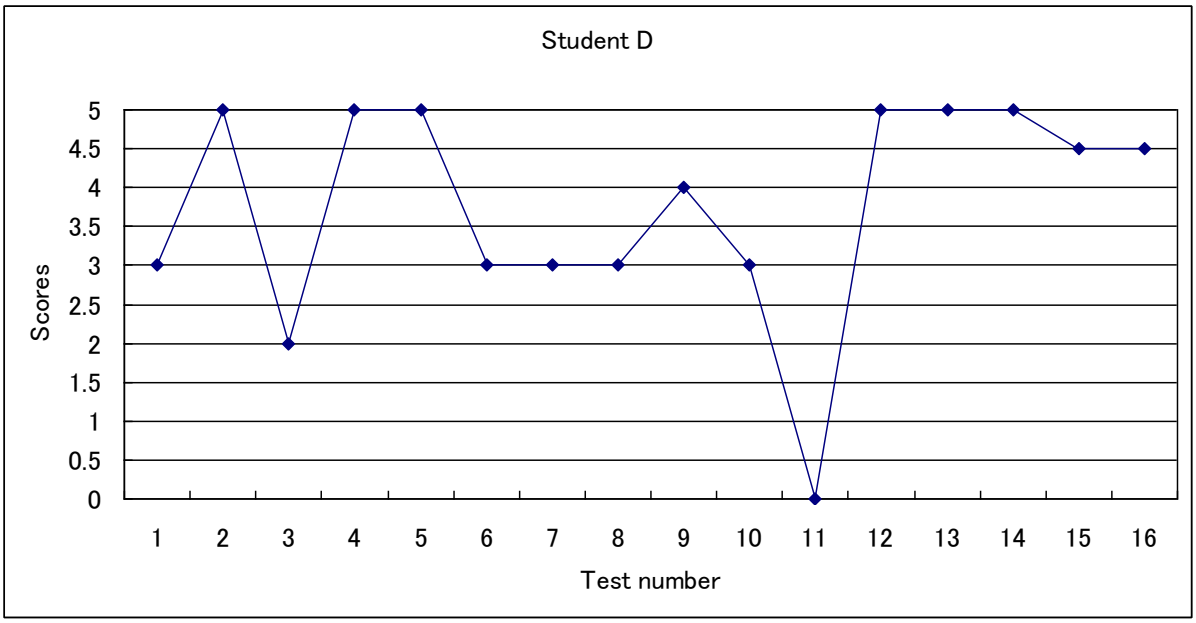


Figure 5.16. Class test scores for Student D

*Student D did not take test 11 because she was absent.

The scores for Student D fluctuated between Tests 1 through 10, during the first and second periods. Unlike her first and second periods, she maintained almost full points from Test 12 onward. She changed her attitude toward class tests in the third period.

The reason for the fluctuation in scores in the first and second periods might have been attributed to her insufficient cognitive learning strategies. In the third questionnaire, Student D confessed that she had not clearly understood the system of evaluation from the beginning. In addition, she initially failed to manage her scores on class tests. However, with the autonomy support, including written and verbal encouragement, she began to understand the system better and tried to earn good scores to be successful in this class. The learner autonomy

support to offer necessary cognitive learning strategies should have been provided at the beginning. Autonomy support should have also been provided to guide Student D to higher and expanded learning goals. Offering clear study plans should have also been provided in the middle of the course.

It is noteworthy that she often used the expression, “learning English is enjoyable”. This seemed to be her strongest motivational factor. By the end of the course, Student D seemed to have obtained all the necessary basic psychological needs in the SDT framework: “autonomy”, “competence”, and “relatedness”. All of these were observed by the instructor, and found in the open-ended parts of the questionnaires.

Student D possessed several features at the beginning of the course, including a low level of performance in the first and second periods; external regulation; lack of competence; anxiety; and lack of management skills of learning. Despite these, Student D exhibited a successful performance in the latter half in the learning period and a continuing increase in motivation. This is the ideal trajectory of motivational development, as described in the SDT framework. It indicates that the learner autonomy support, including explicit cognitive learning strategy instruction, metacognitive awareness-raising instruction, and encouraging written and verbal feedback, has a positive effect on enhancing Student D’s motivation and improvement in the performance in learning English. However, stronger cognitive learning strategy instruction at the beginning and guidance to

higher goals with clear study plans in the middle of the course should have been provided for Student D.

5.6.3. Analysis of similarities in the successful students: similarities across both Group A and Group B; similarities found only in Group A; and similarities found only in Group B

The individual case studies investigated these individual differences in detail. However, there are several similarities among the successful students. These students, in both groups, developed sufficient metacognitive learning strategies to reflect on, and analyse, their own proficiency and learning of English. Students A and C demonstrated metacognitive learning skills from the beginning. Student D started to develop them with the learner autonomy support from the middle of the course and fully developed it at the end of the course. In addition, all of the successful learners experienced a sense of efficacy and a sense of competence.

Among the successful learners in Group A, motivation remained an introjected or external regulation. In addition, these students failed to expand their future goals in terms of learning English. They also failed to have relatedness as a basic need in the SDT framework. This indicated the instruction model for Group A contributed to enhancing students' performance in learning English, but not to enhancing their motivation. It was also observed that students' perceived level

and types of motivation are not necessarily related to their performance on class tests.

The main similarity between the successful students in Group B is that both students demonstrated the ideal trajectory of motivational development, as described in SDT framework; from external or introjected regulation to identified regulation and integrated regulation. In addition, they met all three basic needs in the SDT framework: "autonomy", "competence", and "relatedness". This indicated that the instruction model with learner autonomy support for Group B contributed to enhancing these students' performance in learning English and building their motivation.

5.6.4. Unsuccessful students in Group A without learner autonomy support

Student E: Student who understood the need to learn, but was not able to maintain the motivation.

As with the successful students, two unsuccessful students from Group A and two unsuccessful students from Group B were selected based on the total scores of their class test. Students who earned the lowest and the second lowest scores were selected from Group A and Group B. Therefore, the analysis of the data displays several interesting features.

The conspicuous feature that Student E displayed was a considerable discrepancy between his perceived motivation and the attitude and the performance in actual learning. Student E had kept stating that his motivation was increasing; however, he did not change his attitude towards learning.

I have not been good in the English subject since junior high school days, and it has continued throughout the high school days. In particular, I have not been able to learn grammar. I can understand the grammar in the class but when it comes to answering grammatical questions, I always fail to do so. I entered this university without taking an English test. I am not sure whether I can keep up with this class. … I know I have to use English on many occasions when I start working. So I decided to take this class. I will attend this class regularly, [I will] study hard to prepare for the class tests, I will concentrate on the class contents, and I will review the contents after class. (Pre-course questionnaire, 26 September 2008 translated into English by the author)

The above data from the pre-course open-ended questionnaire indicated that Student E had a strong aversion to learning English caused by his repeated failures in the previous six years, strong anxiety about learning, a lack of confidence, and learned helplessness. His motivation was an external regulation, although he recognized the importance of learning English and clearly expressed his will to study English hard at this stage.

Student E's motivation decreased from "moderate" (in the first questionnaire), to "somewhat" (in the second questionnaire) and remained at "somewhat" (in the third questionnaire). However, his perception of motivation kept increasing compared to the previous questionnaire. In terms of motivational factors, Student E stated "I was able to understand the grammar which I had not been

able to understand before, and my motivation to learn English was enhanced" (in the second questionnaire). However, his perception of increased motivation was not reflected in his class test scores. Despite his statement of increased motivation, it seemed to be very difficult for him to change his attitude towards learning to a more self-determined direction. There seemed to be a considerable difficulty in taking a real action towards learning activities.

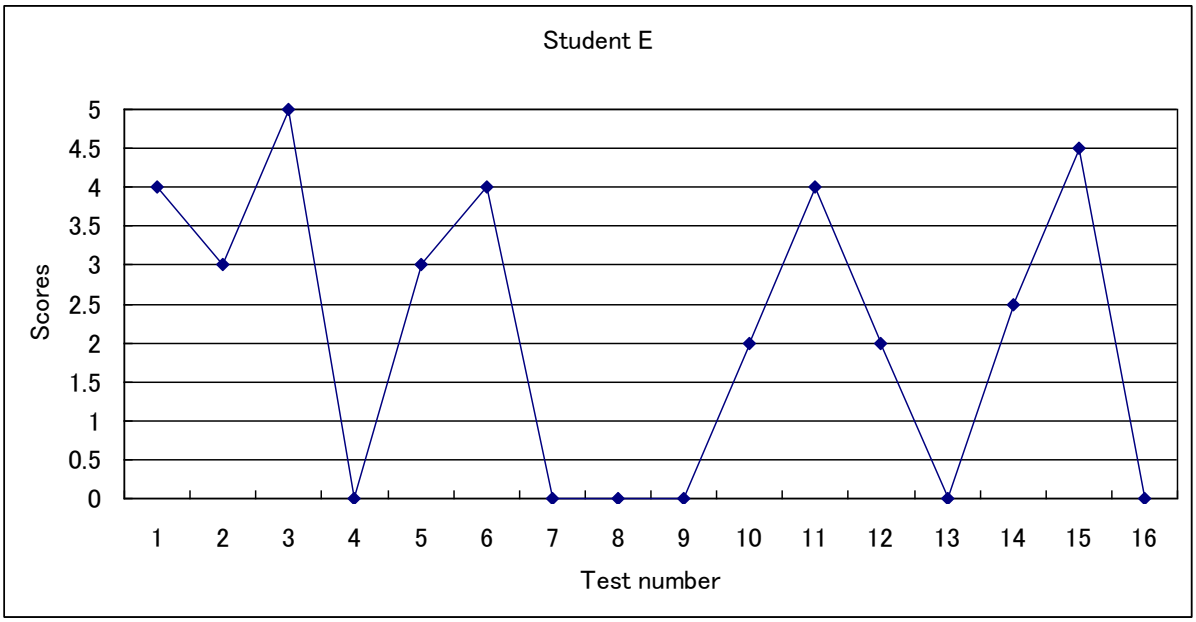


Figure 5.17. Short test scores for Student E

* Student E did not take test 8, test 13, and test 16, because he was absent.

Figure 5.17. indicated that Student E had a score of zero eight times. Three out of the eight times were because he was absent on the day of the test. There were no make up tests, thus, students earned zero points when they were absent. Despite his "perception" of increased motivation, he was not able to change his learning attitude according to that motivation. His results remained

unsuccessful for the entire course. Autonomy support including making a realistic study plan. Suggestions for favourable study habits should have been provided for Student E in the first period.

Looking at the type of motivational development, Student E showed external regulation at the beginning with a strong negative feeling toward learning English, caused by repeated unsuccessful experiences in the past. Although he recognized the need to learn English and decided to study hard at the beginning, he was not able to maintain his motivation. Throughout the instruction period, although he gained some sense of efficacy, and noticed some progress, he did not earn good marks and repeated his unsuccessful experience, which led to a further aversion to learning English. He kept external regulation for his learning until the end. It is very interesting that Student E kept claiming that his motivation had increased, although the actual scores did not reflect that motivation.

Student E doesn't seem to be ready for the class test. I wonder whether he knows the accumulated scores of the class test. If he knows that and finds that his scores are not good enough to get the credit, would it change his attitude about preparing for the test? I told the class to keep a study log, but that's all I can do for this class. I feel guilty about it. (Field notes, 28 November 2008)

A major contributing factor to his failure, besides his many absences from the class, may be his inability to understand the system of evaluation and the loss of

over his own learning outcome. The description in the third questionnaire indicated that he did not monitor his own learning, thus he did not know how many points he needed to receive credit. In addition, he did not understand the meaning and purpose of the class tests, so he had a strong negative feeling towards them. The autonomy support to help him monitor his own learning, and regular encouragement, might have changed his attitude toward learning.

Student E did not have cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies and proper study habits and study skills. Student E had none of the three basic needs in the SDT framework: "autonomy", "competence", and "relatedness". The instruction model for Group A did not enhance Student E's performance and motivation in learning English.

Since he had not received course credit, Student E returned to my class one year later. This time, he always took the seat just in front of me and attended all of the classes. His attitude toward learning had dramatically improved. With the autonomy support available in this class, he kept his learning log and points on the class tests. He passed this time. Student E expressed that in the first year, he had not taken the tests seriously. This time, he said he wanted to obtain good marks, so he tried very hard. This successful result indicates that learner autonomy support was effective in increasing Student E's motivation and improving his performance on the class tests.

Student F: The student who started the course with “amotivation”

Student F is another example of an unsuccessful student without learner autonomy support in Group A. The conspicuous features that Student F displayed were a lack of cognitive learning strategies, self-management skills, metacognitive learning strategies, and good study habits. Student F showed these features from the beginning of the course.

Student F seems not to have any intension to participate in the class. He just exists in the class without a textbook or notes. When I asked questions, he always said, “I don’t know”. I wonder what causes this attitude. How can I help him?
(Field notes, 28 November 2008)

It was observed that Student F failed to bring his textbook to class several times. His lack of metacognitive skills was displayed in his comments on the grammar diagnostic test. He just wrote “I did not do well. I want to study from now on”. In addition, Student F did not communicate with the instructor or with the other students. Although he wrote on the questionnaire that “I want to study from now”, he indicated “amotivation” as a type in the SDT framework.

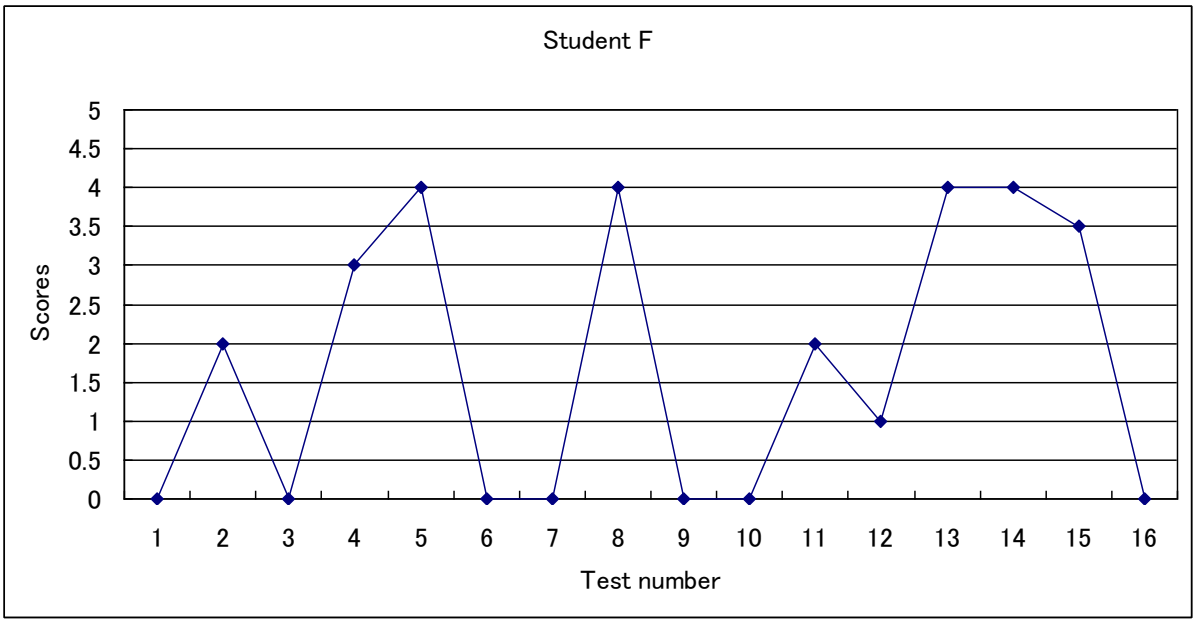


Figure 5.18. Class test scores for Student F

*Student F did not take test 10 and test 16, because he was absent.

Student F earned zero points six times between the first and thirteenth tests in the first and second periods. Among these six occurrences, only two were caused by his absence. These scores indicated that he had not prepared for the class tests. However, he earned relatively good marks in the third period. He admitted, in the third questionnaire, that he realized the possibility of failure in the class. As a result, he tried harder toward the end.

Student F's motivation remained "somewhat" from the beginning to the second period and decreased to "not much" at the end of the course. His perception of motivation remained the same throughout the course.

Turning to the type of motivation, Student F indicated "amotivation", the least

self-determined motivation in the SDT framework. Repeated unsuccessful scores in the class tests may have strengthened his feeling of inferiority and learned helplessness.

Several students came to see me after class to ask whether they have high enough scores to get the credit. Student F was one of them. Unfortunately, it was too late to start obtaining the scores to get the credit for him. He should have come to see me earlier. (Field notes, 9 December 2008)

The major contributing factor to his "amotivation" and unsuccessful performance was his lack of cognitive learning strategies including strategic palnning. Student F repeatedly described in the open-ended parts of questionnaires that he did not know what to do to prepare for the class tests. Strong autonomy support focusing on the instruction of cognitive learning strategies and study habits, including making a study plan, should have been provided to Student F from the beginning. Since he was left in the situation where he did not establish appropriate study habits, he was overwhelmed by the tasks and lost his confidence and the motivation to learn.

Like Student E, Student F failed to have "autonomy", "competence", and "relatedness" in the SDT framework. The instruction model for Group A without learner autonomy support did not contribute to enhancing Student F's performance or motivation in learning English.

Student F came back to my class the following year with Student E. This time, he

intentionally sat directly in front of me. With the available learner autonomy support, Student F asked many questions, kept his study log, studied harder, and performed very well on the class tests. It was demonstrated that an instruction with learner autonomy support has a possibility of contributing to enhance students' motivation, even for the students with the least self-determined motivation.

5.6.5. Unsuccessful students in Group B with learner autonomy support

Student G: The student who was able to use "relatedness"

Unlike the unsuccessful students in Group A, Student G displayed a consistent motivation to learn and tried to ask many questions. Student G did not fail, but she had the lowest scores among the students who passed the class. She was very good at communicating with the instructor and tried to help another unsuccessful student (Student H) in Group B. This indicates that she had established "relatedness" among the three basic psychological needs in the SDT framework from the beginning.

Student G's motivation remained to be "very much" in the first and the second questionnaire, but decreased to be "moderately" in the third questionnaire. However, Student G's "perception" of motivation kept increasing, compared to the description in the previous questionnaire.

Turning to the type of motivational development, Student G's original motivation was an identified regulation.

Before I entered high school, I liked English, but since then I have had an inferiority complex because other students did far better than me. I did not study at all in high school. But recently, I devised a plan to go abroad to study business management, so I need to learn English. I do not like memorising things. But I would like to study harder. (Pre-course questionnaire, translated into English by the author)

During the course, she strengthened that motivation by acquiring a sense of competence in understanding grammar. The motivational factors found in the description of Student G's questionnaires were a sense of competence, self-efficacy, relatedness with the teacher, and external pressure that she had to take class tests. In particular, Student G appreciated the instructor's encouraging feedback and the peer-assistance she received in the class.

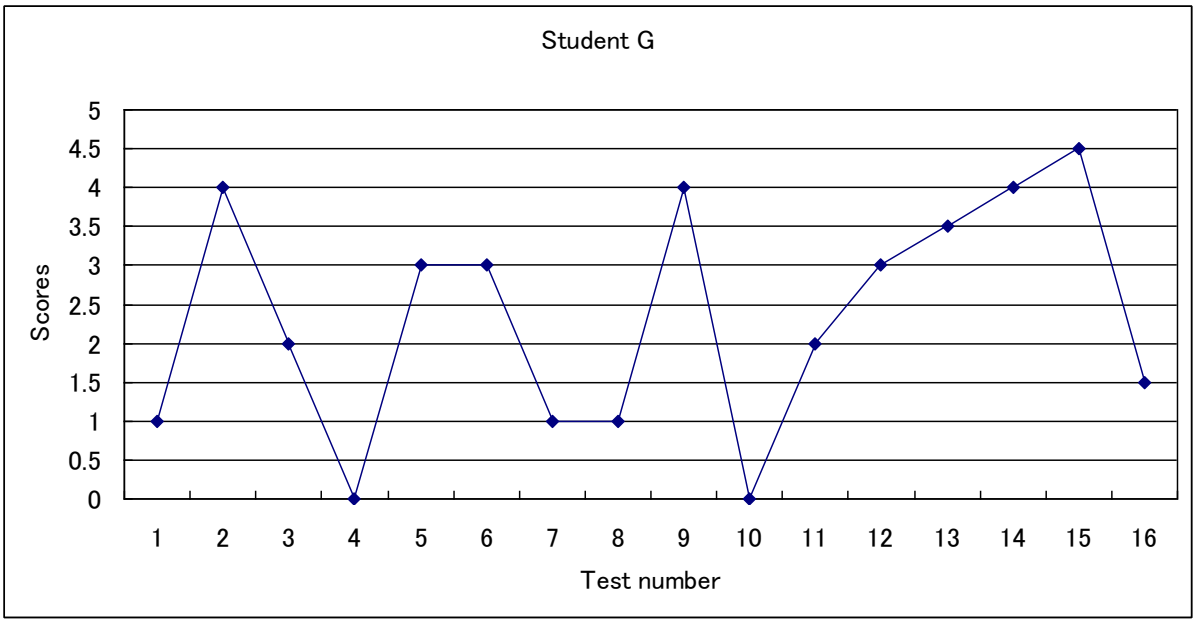


Figure 5.19. Class test scores for Student G

*Student G did not take test 4, because she was absent.

The scores for Student G were quite unstable in the first period (from Tests 1 to 5) and the beginning of the second period (from Tests 6 to 13). Her scores began to rise from Test 11 onwards. The unsuccessful performance during the first and second period was caused by her laziness and tendency to avoid the tiresome memorisation of important grammatical points (Student G described it in the third questionnaire). She overcame these problems with the instructor's encouragement.

Student G is enjoying the class very much. She seems to be relaxed and asks as many questions as she likes during the class. She stops me while I am explaining grammar whenever she feels she is not following. This attitude is very unique and not usually found among other students. Her attitude affected other students positively, because other students started to ask many questions. (Field notes, 14 November 2008)

Her outgoing personality made her ask many questions of the instructor without hesitation; that also helped her understanding and increased her motivation to study. She gained a sense of efficacy once she began to better understand the grammar. She finally started to regard English as interesting. This motivational development was correlated with the continuous increase in her test scores in the third period.

She was able to make the most of the instruction from the instructor. This indicated that she gained competence and relatedness; however, she failed to gain a sufficient level of autonomy. Stronger autonomy support for cognitive learning strategies, including self-management, should have been provided for Student G. Despite her low total scores, I conclude that the instruction model for Group B significantly contributed to enhancing Student G's motivation and performance, particularly during the third period.

Student H: The student who was not using "relatedness"

This is another case of an unsuccessful student in Group B with learner autonomy support. Student H had many problems, not only with learning English, but with learning in general. It was observed that Student H did not have cognitive learning strategies, including self-management and favourable study habits. He seemed to have difficulty in organizing what he had learned,

and he kept failing to review the content he learned during the class. In addition, he had difficulty in writing in either English or Japanese quickly enough to keep up with the class. Observing these difficulties, the instructor offered extra instruction to this student, such as lunch time meetings, but he never took advantage of those opportunities. Laziness and the lack of cognitive learning strategies and study habits seemed to prevent him from achieving successful results.

Student H's motivation changed from "very much" (first questionnaire), to "moderate" (second questionnaire) then returned to "very much" (third questionnaire). In addition, his "perception" of motivation kept rising, compared to the motivation presented in the previous questionnaire. The motivational factors he reported in the questionnaire were his sense of achievement. Student H stated, "I was able to review the grammar, which I had not understood before", or "it was fun to be able to know the unknown words in English".

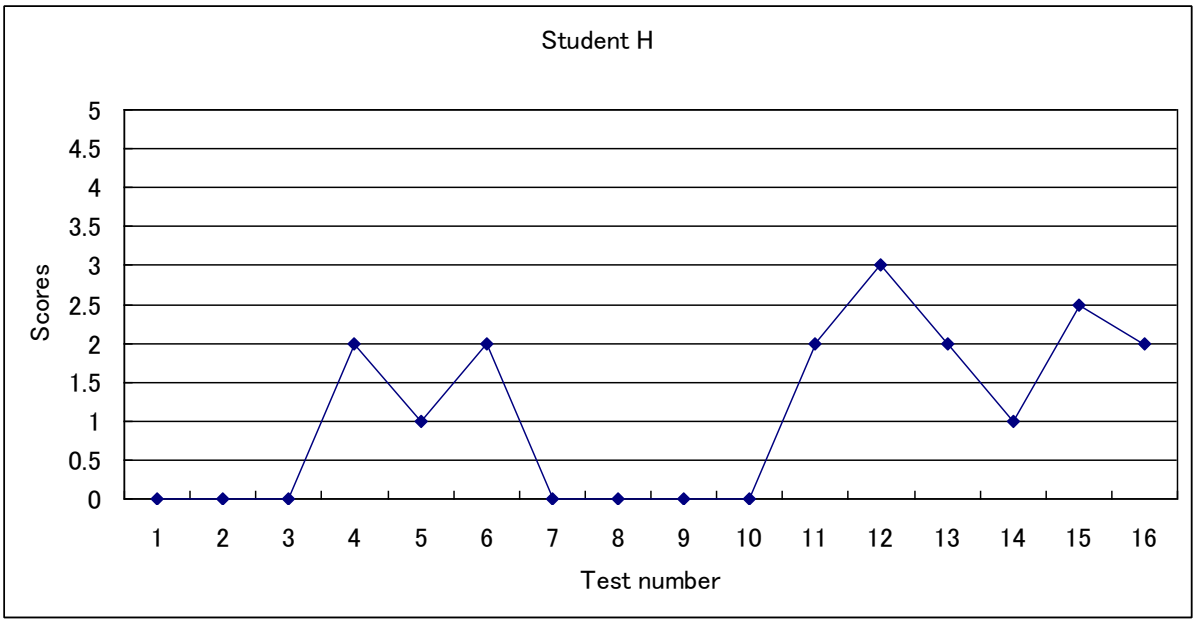


Figure 5.20. Class test scores for Student H

*Student H took all the tests.

Student H earned zero points on seven tests. Since Student H took all the tests, this indicates that he had not prepared for them. It is interesting to view the gap between his expressed high motivation to learn and his very low scores on the class tests.

Student H seems to be enjoying the class very much. He is always cheerful and asks many questions of the instructor and other students. He seems to solve his problems in class. But he doesn't review or prepare for the test. I have told him to come to see me to make his study plan together outside of class many times, expecting him to appear. He never came. (Field notes, 14 November 2008)

In his case, there seemed to be no relationship between the expressed motivation and the actual learning. The high level of motivation may have been supported by his very good communication with the instructor and with the other students.

Student H described in the pre-course questionnaire that the reason to study English was to be fluent in spoken English and to become able to listen to and understand English songs, which are outside the focus of the class. His type of motivation was identified regulation; however, the goals were somewhat different from academic achievement, thus, he failed to make an effort in his academic activities. This may partly explain why he kept increasing his motivation, but getting low scores. He had good communication with the instructor and with the other students and asked many questions in class, however, he was unable to study outside of the class, even when he was offered the opportunity. Autonomy support seemed to work inside the class, but it was ineffective in making him acquire appropriate study habits.

From the previous description, no relationship was found between his perception of a high level of motivation and his actual effort. Although he had identified motivation in learning English from the beginning, this was not directly related to the academic content in the class. Because of his repeated failure to obtain good scores on the class tests, Student H failed to acquire either a sense of competence or a sense of efficacy.

Although he demonstrated a high level of relatedness, Student H failed to make use of it for his academic efforts. The instruction model with learner autonomy support failed to enhance Student H's performance and effort in learning English. The only basic need he had was "relatedness"; however, he was not able to make

use of it. Stronger autonomy support, especially in instruction for cognitive and metacognitive learning strategy, favourable study habits, and proper learning skills, should have been conducted.

5.6.6. Analysis of the similarities in unsuccessful students: similarities across both Group A and Group B; similarities found only in Group A; and similarities found only in Group B

In the case of successful students, these case studies investigated individual differences. However, some interesting similarities were found among the unsuccessful students.

All of the unsuccessful students, both in Group A and Group B, lacked cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies in addition to good study habits. Thus, this led to the lack of autonomy as a basic need in the SDT framework.

There are three similarities found among the unsuccessful students in Group A: 1. they had external regulation with a strong negative feeling towards learning, 2. they failed to develop motivation towards a more self-determined regulation, and 3. they failed to communicate with the instructor or with other students. In addition, they lacked “autonomy”, “competence”, and “relatedness”.

Two unsuccessful students in Group B with learner autonomy support displayed

considerably different aspects from the students in Group A. Both students demonstrated a high motivation and strong tendency towards relatedness with the instructor. However, one of the students failed to use that relatedness to take advantage of the learner autonomy support offered to him. The data also indicates that the perceived level of motivation is not necessarily related to the actual performance in learning. In addition, it demonstrates that although the student has relatedness with the instructor or with other students, it may not be possible to apply it without sufficient cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies.

The analysis of the similarities found in all the unsuccessful students clearly indicated a need for cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies and favourable study habits for successful learning. Learner autonomy support, including the instruction of cognitive learning strategies to assist unsuccessful students in organizing their study plan and the instruction of metacognitive learning strategies to encourage them to monitor and reflect on their own studies, is required. In addition, clear instructions about what to study for the following test and making them study to obtain successful marks may be effective. For the students with serious learning problems, it is recommended that they have counselling sessions outside the class or that they participate in the study group for the test preparation.

I have seen, in the research from the cognitive educational psychology (presented

in Chapter 2), that acquiring a sense of efficacy, expectancy to success, and positive effort attribution are important in enhancing motivation. Based on this idea, class tests should be provided with caution. Until students gain a sense of achievement, the tests should be limited to simple questions. This is important, because the purpose of the test is not to assess the students, in this case, but to prove to students that they can make progress if they make an effort. This feeling makes students attribute the successful outcome to their efforts. In addition, they can build the mastery-oriented sense of efficacy. According to the progress students make, the tests can be gradually made more difficult.

5.7. Summary of the main findings

In this chapter, results are reported from both a quantitative and qualitative viewpoint. The data analysis consists of five sections.

In Section 5.2., the impact of the training on a students' perceived level of motivation was assessed to answer Research Question 1: What effect does learner autonomy-focused instruction have on the students' perception of their level of motivation? The results from the first questionnaire administered after the first four weeks indicated that the effect of learner autonomy-focused instruction had not been observed at this stage. In addition, a general positive effect of conventional and learner autonomy-focused teaching strategies began to emerge. I believe this was the case, because most of the students in the two

groups experienced an increase in motivation to learn English, compared to their perceived motivational level at the beginning of the course.

The results from the second questionnaire, administered at eight weeks into the semester, indicated that the motivation of students in Group B generally increased between Weeks 4 and 8, whereas the perceived level of motivation among the students in Group A appeared to decrease during that same time period. No significant difference was observed in the question asking "how motivated are you?" between the students in Group A and Group B.

The results from the third questionnaire administered at 13 weeks into the semester described the characteristics of the students formed through the 13 weeks of instruction. The results indicated that the students in Group B had a stronger interest to learn English, a stronger level of the understanding of the evaluation system, a stronger level of the monitoring of their learning process, an apprehension of their scores, and a stronger level of appreciation towards the system of class tests. This illustrates that learner autonomy-focused instruction contributes to raising students' interest in learning English.

In Section 5.3., the motivational development of students in Group B and Group A were assessed. The results indicated students in Group B kept feeling that their motivation increased, although the level of motivation they perceived was "moderately" motivated. On the other hand, the data from the students in Group

A indicated a decreased trend of motivation. The results suggest that the learner autonomy-focused instruction contributed to an increase in students' motivation, whereas the instruction in Group A did not positively affect the persistence of their motivation to learn English.

In Section 5.4., qualitative research into the relationship between autonomy support and student motivation to answer Research Question 2: In what ways do the different types of learner autonomy support relate to the development of student motivation? was analyzed and subdivided into six more questions. The results of the motivational development of the students in Group B indicated that the learner autonomy-focused instruction positively affected raising students' motivations. The types of student motivation, including introjected regulation, varied during the first stage. Students tended to have a more self-determined regulation and identified regulation from the second stage.

At the end of the course, most students developed identified regulation. Some students developed the integrated regulation and the intrinsic motivation as well. There were no external and introjected regulations found at this point of the study.

In Section 5.5., the mean average value of students' scores on class tests conducted in the course in Group B and Group A were compared to answer the Research Question 3, "What effect does the learner autonomy-focused instruction

have on the students' *performance* on the class tests?" The data revealed that the learner autonomy-focused instruction had a better influence on the students' performance on class tests. In addition, students' scores in the learner autonomy-focused instruction were generally higher towards the end of the course than at the beginning.

In Section 5.6., an extensive amount of data of four successful students and four unsuccessful students in the study was collected and analyzed. Several similarities among the successful students and unsuccessful students were identified. The successful students developed sufficient metacognitive learning strategies and experienced a sense of efficacy and a sense of competence. On the other hand, it was identified that the unsuccessful students generally lacked cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies and favorable study habits.

The implications of these findings are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

6.1. Introduction

In Chapter 5, student questionnaires and test scores for Group A and Group B were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. In this chapter, these findings are discussed with respect to the individual research questions.

6.2. Research Question 1: What effect does learner autonomy-focused instruction (including metacognitive awareness- raising, instruction of learning strategies, and the use of extrinsic rewards) have on the students' perception of their level of motivation?

The qualitative data collected from the student questionnaire indicated a noticeable trend in motivational change for the students taught with learner autonomy-focused instruction designed for the present study (see Section 5.3.). This trend suggests that the learner autonomy-focused instruction positively raised student motivation. The students taught in Group B were indeed better motivated than those in Group A.

In the first period, students in both groups had similar types of motivation. Their motivation types varied and included introjected regulation, identified regulation, and intrinsic motivation. Students in both groups generally expressed a sense of efficacy, confidence in learning, and anticipation of success in the class. It is noticeable that more students in Group B had identified regulation than did those in Group A. In contrast, the students in Group A indicated a strong tendency towards external and introjected regulation. After only four weeks of instruction, the difference in motivation had already appeared.

In the second period, around half of the students in Group B developed metacognitive awareness of their own learning. They had a sense of efficacy and confidence in learning. This awareness may have played an important role in increasing motivation. During this period, many students in Group B developed identified regulation. Introjected regulation and external regulation disappeared during this period for those students in Group B. In contrast, students in Group A, who once expressed a sense of efficacy in the first period, now expressed more anxiety towards their learning. Through their experience of failure and difficulty in learning, they feared failure. This had become a major reason for learning; thus, they developed external regulation and introjected regulation during this period. The instruction with learner autonomy support, however, started to make a clear difference in the motivation for students in Group B and those in Group A.

In the third period, most of the students in Group B indicated they had developed metacognitive awareness in their learning. They continued to express a sense of efficacy. During this period, they indicated a strong tendency towards identified regulation. Some students developed integrated regulation. In contrast, the students in Group A expressed a strong fear of failing the class. Generally, they seemed to have developed strong introjected regulation towards their learning.

These two different trends of motivational development indicated that the learner autonomy-focused instruction positively affected the development of students' motivation towards a more self-determined direction.

6.3. Research Question 2: In what ways do the different types of learner autonomy support relate to the development of student motivation?

Research Question 2 was subdivided into six further questions, which were as follows:

2a. When and how does student motivational development occur in the two groups?

2b. How does a students' sense of efficacy affect their motivation to learn?

2c. What are the major reasons that relate to student motivation to learn, other than the sense of efficacy?

2d. What are the major reasons for diminished student motivation towards learning?

2e. How does the self-monitoring of learning affect student motivation?

2f. How does setting goals enhance student motivation to learn?

We now look at each of these questions and assess what the data tells us.

6.3.1. Research Question 2a: When and how does student motivational development occur in the two groups?

Student motivational development began to appear in the first period, between the beginning of the course and four weeks into the course. However, it was observed that the major change in motivational development started to occur in the second period, between the fifth week and the eighth week.

Increased and more self-determined motivational development occurred only in Group B. The development occurred generally, from introjected regulation, through identified regulation, and finally to integrated regulation. Intrinsic motivation did not seem to be involved in this sequence, because intrinsic motivation appeared from the first period onwards. Towards the end of the course, many students in Group B expressed the view that learning English was interesting as a result of their successful learning experience. However, as a reason for their motivation, interest in learning itself did not appear as frequently as other motivation factors, such as a sense of efficacy or the metacognitive awareness of learning.

6.3.2. Research Question 2b: How does a students' sense of efficacy affect their motivation to learn?

Qualitative data from the student questionnaire suggests that sense of efficacy is one of the major factors that can affect student motivation to learn. Comments, including those on the sense of efficacy in relation to raised motivation, appeared most frequently among the various factors that affected the students' motivation. In addition, it appeared in the very early stages of learning, in both Group A and Group B. It continued appearing in the second period and the third period.

There were two primary reasons for the students' sense of efficacy: mastery-related self-efficacy and performance-related self-efficacy. Mastery-related self-efficacy includes mastery of content, such as "I understood the grammatical point which I had not been able to understand before," and the mastery of learning skills, such as "I learned how to study." A performance related sense of efficacy is related to the scores on class tests, such as "I was able to the question correctly" or "I can get better marks in class tests than before."

Of the two different senses of efficacy, the mastery-related sense of efficacy appeared more frequently in the answers to the questionnaire. In addition, the performance-related sense of efficacy was more frequently observed in the first and the last periods of learning, while the mastery-related sense of efficacy was

observed throughout all the periods. The reason for the appearance of the performance-related sense of efficacy in the third period may be related to the fact that students had to think about getting enough marks to get credit for the course.

With passage of time, the sense of efficacy was observed in relation to other feelings, such as interest, enjoyment, and confidence. These feelings were observed more frequently from the second period onwards. This sense of efficacy seemed to develop into a metacognitive reflection of student learning. In addition, the relationship between the sense of efficacy and the positive feelings of the students towards learning was observed more often and to a greater extent in Group B than in Group A.

6.3.3. Research Question 2c: What other major factors relate to student motivation besides a sense of efficacy?

Although a sense of efficacy most frequently appeared in relation to students' raised motivation, the qualitative data from the student questionnaire indicated that other factors also affected student motivation. These factors included confidence to achieve, anticipation of successful learning, metacognitive awareness of their own learning, relationship with the teacher, and interest in learning.

Confidence to achieve and the anticipation of successful learning

Confidence to achieve and the anticipation of success are closely related concepts; both of which affect student motivation to learn positively. At the beginning of the course, most of the students had already experienced unsuccessful learning in high school. They also had anxiety about learning. Once they started to feel that they could keep up with other students and the instruction, they gained a certain degree of confidence about achievement. This confidence may have caused their anticipation of successful learning and seemed to function as a driving force for their learning. This confidence to achieve, as well as the anticipation of successful learning, appeared in the first period. It was more prevalent in Group B.

Metacognitive awareness of one's own learning

It is noteworthy that metacognitive awareness of the students' own learning strongly affected student motivation, especially in the second and third periods. Also, it is interesting to note that this finding was observed only in Group B. Metacognitive awareness of students' own learning in this context means that the students reflected their learning properly and gained some kind of meaning from it. Many of the students expressed the view that their motivation was raised because they properly understood the cause and the effect of their learning activities. For example, some of the students were able to clarify the difference between what they had mastered and what they had not. In addition, they felt that they still wanted to master the unclear part of their learning. This

feeling of wanting to seek further challenge seemed to emerge from a successful learning experience. The data from this study indicates that this feeling of challenge is closely related to both enjoyment and interest in the learning.

Metacognitive awareness not only relates to the mastery of content, it also relates to the performance achieved on the tests. For example, some students found that there was a relationship between the effort they made and their increased performance on the class tests. Another student found that there was a relationship between the level of understanding and level of performance on the class tests. In both cases, students attributed their successful performance to their effort or mastery as a result of their effort. This favourable effort attribution produced increased motivation. With their successful results on the class tests, students seemed to realize that they were making progress. In this sense, it is important to let students monitor their own performance and let them fully experience the positive results of their efforts to raise their motivation level.

Only the students who were receiving the learner autonomy support were encouraged to monitor their learning, keep their scores and reflect on their own learning. This autonomy support may promote students' metacognitive awareness in Group B. Through this support, students acquired the competence to analyze their learning metacognitively. That competence may have positively affected their motivation to learn.

Relationship with the teacher

The qualitative data collected from the student questionnaires and from the observations made in the case study indicate that the students' relationship with the teacher positively affected motivation for some students. Some students appreciated the instructor's attention, encouraging remarks, and positive feedback in keeping their motivation progressing. The case study of Group B indicates that even an unsuccessful student highly appreciated the instructor's attention and encouragement in maintaining their motivation on learning, especially outside of class.

Interest

It is noteworthy that student interest did not emerge by itself during the period of instruction. It was observed that the interest appeared as a developmental form of other motivational factors, such as sense of efficacy, sense of competence, and anticipation of success. This is because most of the students in both Group A and Group B did not originally possessed a strong interest in English at the beginning. Rather, they generally had negative feelings or anxiety towards learning English from their past unsuccessful experiences in high school.

Increased student interest in learning started to be observed during the first period and clearly was present in the third period. Student interest was observed more frequently in Group B.

6.3.4. Research Question 2d: What are the major reasons for diminished student motivation towards learning?

The qualitative data collected from the students' questionnaires and the case study indicated that there were several factors that diminished student motivation to learn. These factors included a strong negative feeling towards learning, lack of interest, lack of confidence in learning, failure to develop a sense of efficacy, and lack of anticipation of actual successful learning. These factors were more frequently observed in Group A, which had no autonomy support instruction, including study skills.

The case study clearly indicates there are several common characteristics that apply to unsuccessful students. Unsuccessful students generally do not have cognitive and metacognitive learning skills, self-management skills, or proper study habits. It is assumed that their unsuccessful learning history and diminished motivation to learn are closely related to a general attitude towards learning. Moreover, these factors and attitudes may construct a kind of negative spiral (Figure 6.1). For example, improper learning attitudes, such as a lack of cognitive and metacognitive learning skills and a lack of study habits do lead to the an inability to obtain better marks and a failure to understand the content of a class, which may cause a failure to obtain a sense of efficacy. Because of a lack of self-efficacy, motivation level decreases and students cannot change their improper attitudes towards learning.

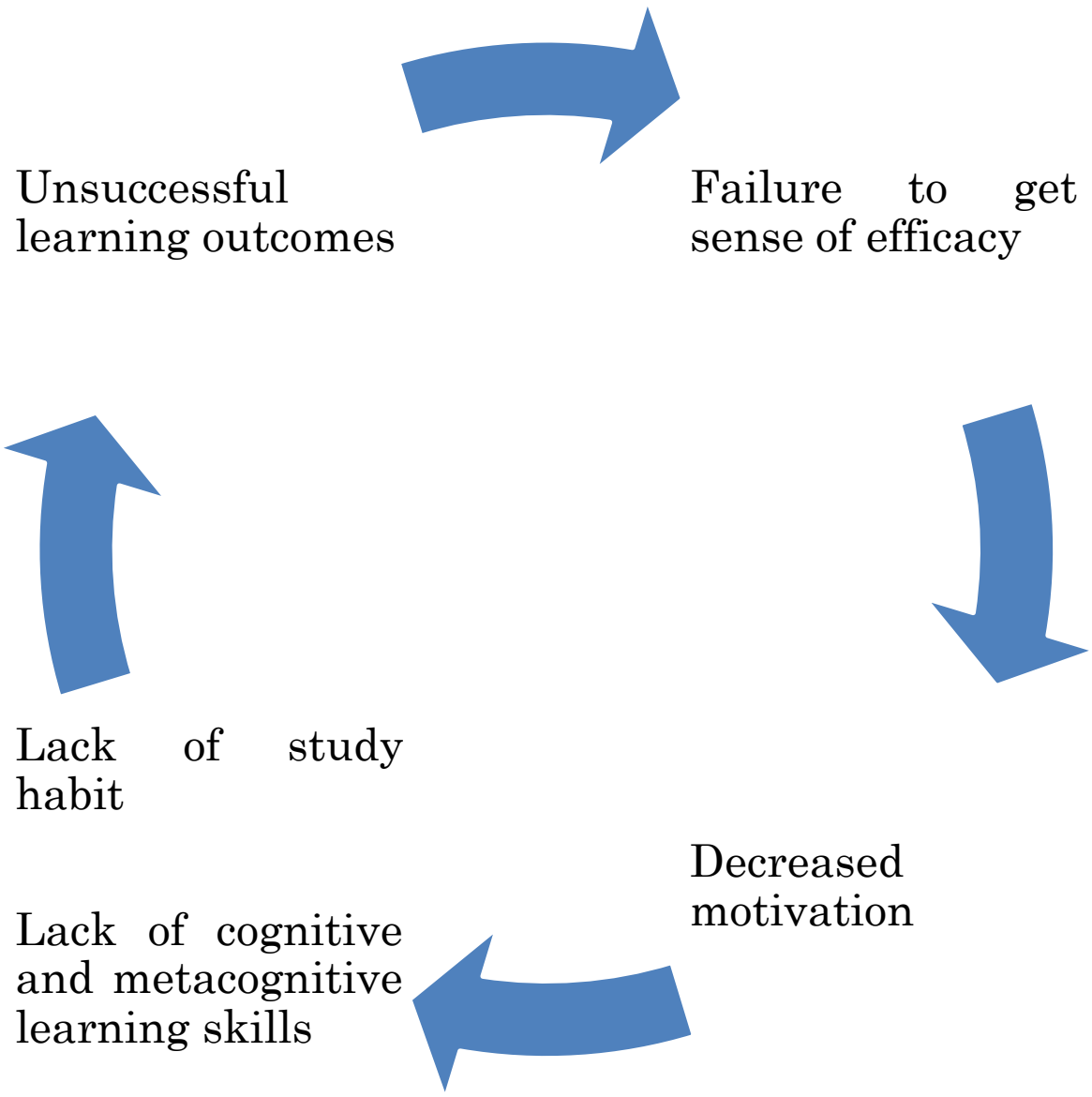


Figure 6.1. Students' negative spiral of unsuccessful learning

Once this negative spiral is constructed, instructors presume that they cannot expect student motivation to rise. Since students are then left in a state of self-confusion, this negative spiral must be cut and modified to create a more positive way of learning. To help students escape from this negative spiral,

autonomy support is necessary to let students organize and plan their learning, so they can acquire proper cognitive and metacognitive learning skills and better study habits.

6.3.5. Research Question 2e: How does self-monitoring of learning affect student motivation?

As indicated in the discussion of Research Question 3, cognitive and metacognitive learning skills, including self-monitoring of one's own learning, are closely related to student motivation. These skills are considered as positive re-enforcement that can lead students to a more successful learning experience that continued to affect student motivation positively.

The quantitative data indicated that students in Group B grasped the accumulated scores of class tests significantly better than students in Group A. If the students in Group B were better motivated, their metacognitive learning skills, such as self-monitoring of their own learning, may have played an important role in their motivation levels.

The qualitative data from the individual case study suggested that all of the successful students in both the Group A and Group B had adequate self-monitoring skills of learning. Unlike the successful students, three out of four unsuccessful students failed to understand the evaluation system. All of

these students failed to monitor their own learning. This finding indicates that the successful self-monitoring skills lead to successful learning. In addition, the failure of monitoring their own learning leads to decreased motivation and unsuccessful learning.

6.3.6. Research Question 2f: How does setting goals enhance student motivation to learn?

One remaining research question, 2f, is whether the setting of goals enhances student motivation to learn. The quantitative data here revealed that there was no significant relationship between students in Group A and those in Group B in terms of setting learning goals. The relationship between increased motivation and the effect derived from setting goals was not clearly found.

The qualitative data collected from the student questionnaire indicated that the students in both Group A and Group B had similar short-term learning goals, such as “to get more than a 60% mark on the test”, but the students in Group B tended to have higher learning goals than students in Group A. However, the effect of goal-setting on increased motivation was not observed. Rather, once students did have increased motivation, they tended to set higher goals.

In terms of long-term and more future-oriented goals, the students in Group B tended to produce more findings for their learning, thus, setting new learning

goals with their learning progressing. These new goals included training in listening, speaking, taking the TOEFL test, and so on. It appeared that as the students increased their sense of efficacy and confidence in learning, they tended to extend their possibility of learning and set new and more future-oriented goals.

The individual case studies

The qualitative data gathered from the individual case studies does not indicate that goal setting positively affected student motivation. Two of the successful students out of four did not set particular learning goals, and three out of four unsuccessful students did set learning goals. In addition, the highly motivated unsuccessful students did not set learning goals. There appears to be no relationship between setting goals and motivation found from a review of the case study.

In this study, it was only assumed that once students are motivated, they become more confident in learning, and thus, tended to extend their possibility of study. In this sense, motivated students tended to have higher immediate learning goals and future-oriented long-term goals.

In summary, Research Questions 2a-2f demonstrated that those students who had received autonomy support better performed and were better motivated than

were the students in Group A. Thus, it is assumed that autonomy support played an important role in enhancing student motivation.

One of the major aspects related to student motivation was their metacognitive awareness of their learning. This awareness was only observed in those students in Group B. Metacognitive learning strategy instruction in Group B did promote student metacognitive awareness of their learning. In their metacognitive learning strategy instruction, students were taught to write down the marks on their class tests and make comments that reflected their own learning. They were encouraged to write down which part they had made mistakes and the reason why they believed they made the mistakes. When the students obtained good marks, they were also encouraged to write down the reasons why their learning was successful. Throughout this instruction, students gradually developed self-observation and self-monitoring skills.

Through examining the findings of their learning process, they could reflect on their own learning styles and modify their time management, study plans, and test-taking strategies. They could even modify their learning goals towards higher and more challenging ones. In this sense, autonomy support, including metacognitive learning strategy instruction, did help students become more self-regulated learners.

Another important factor related to autonomy support is relatedness. Students felt relatedness with their instructor through continuous verbal encouragement and written positive feedback after the class tests. Some students expressed appreciation for this support in raising their motivation to learn. In Group B, where the students were always encouraged by the instructor, students were also encouraged, as they helped each other in the class. For example, when marking a partner student's class test, some students wrote encouraging remarks on the test sheets. Students also explained the important points and helped other students when they expressed they were having difficulty or made mistakes in class. Some students also organized self-study groups and taught each other outside of class, especially before the tests. It is interesting that this kind of peer help was only observed in Group B. These students may have developed help-seeking skills and cooperative study skills through experiencing metacognitive learning strategy instruction in Group B.

The negative spiral was constructed in unsuccessful learning. In successful learning, the increased motivation constructed a positive spiral. Unlike the negative spiral, the starting point for the positive spiral was autonomy supportive instruction. This autonomy supportive instruction, including cognitive and metacognitive learning strategy instruction, guided the students towards having a successful learning experience from which they then gained a sense of efficacy, confidence in learning, and anticipation of further successful learning. At the same time, the students increased their metacognitive

awareness of their own learning from experiencing metacognitive learning strategy instruction. This awareness, with its positive feelings, promoted a higher level of motivation. With that increased motivation, students made more effort and achieved more successful learning.

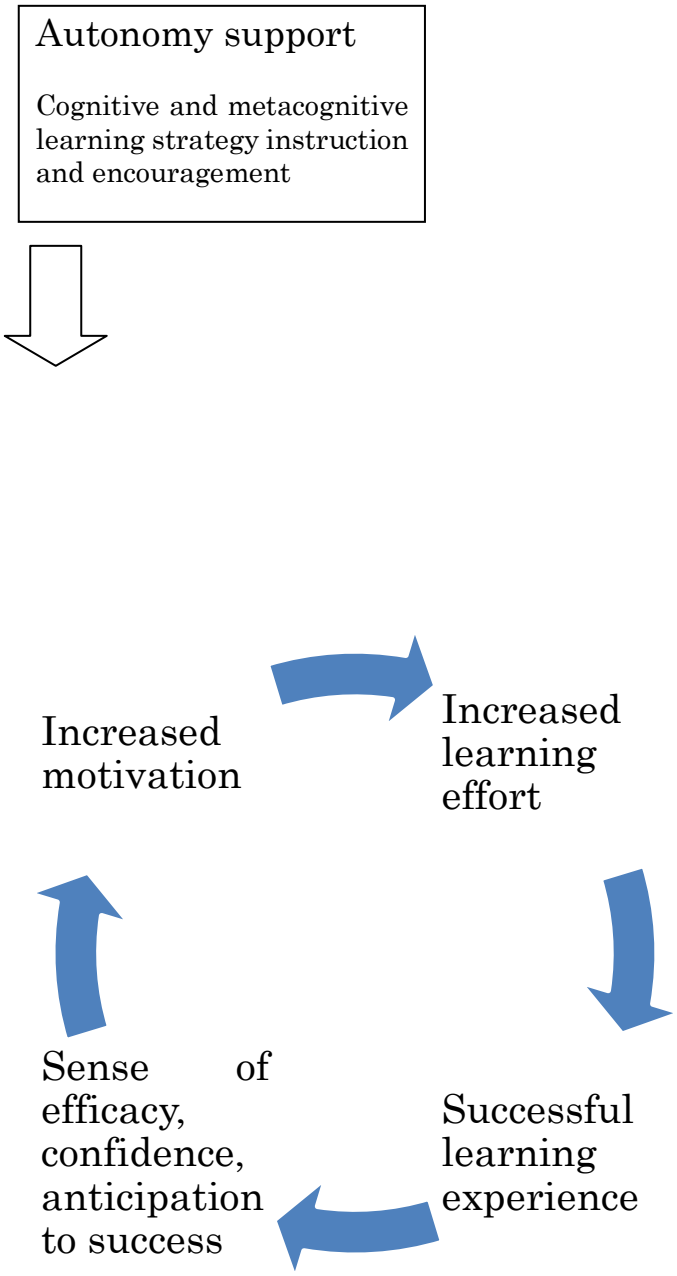


Figure 6.2. Students' positive spiral of successful learning

6.4. Research Question 3: What effect does the learner autonomy-focused instruction (including metacognitive awareness- raising, instruction of learning strategies, and the use of extrinsic rewards) have on the students' *performance* on class tests?

In this study, the students in Group B were taught using autonomy support. The autonomy support included verbal rewards (encouragement) and tangible rewards (written encouraging comments or special pictures), explicit cognitive and metacognitive study skill instruction (monitoring and reflection on learning), and goal setting instruction. The purpose of this autonomy support was to make sure students had a successful learning experience.

As the quantitative data in Section 5.4 indicates, students receiving the learner autonomy-focused instruction performed better on class tests. In the first period, the difference in the mean scores for the class tests was not significant between those students in Group B and those in Group A. In the second period, the difference started to emerge. The students in Group B achieved better scores than those in Group A. In the third period, the students in Group B continued to have higher scores than the students in Group A.

From this data, one can assume that the instruction with learner autonomy support designed for the current study positively affected the performance of the students in Group B.

6.5. Summary

In this chapter, we determined that students receiving autonomy support performed better and were more motivated than students who did not receive the support. Increased and more self-determined motivational development occurred only in the students who received autonomy support. The development occurred generally, from the introjected regulation, through the identified regulation, and finally to the integrated regulation. Intrinsic motivation did not appear to be involved in this sequence, because intrinsic motivation appeared from the first period onwards.

Several motivational factors were observed, including self-efficacy, confidence to achieve, anticipation of successful learning, metacognitive awareness of their own learning, relationships with the teacher, and an interest in learning. Among them, it was determined that self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness played a central role in enhancing students' motivation. It was also found that performance-related sense of efficacy was more frequently observed in the first and last periods of learning, while mastery-related sense of efficacy was observed throughout all periods.

It is assumed that the negative spiral of learning and motivation is created for the unsuccessful students. Thus, stronger autonomy support, including cognitive and metacognitive learning skills and better study habits, is necessary.

The effect of goal-setting on increased motivation was not observed. For the students who have limited motivation, it is assumed that these students increase motivation first, and then set higher goals.

It is interesting that metacognitive awareness was only observed in the students that received autonomy support. This indicates autonomy support, including metacognitive raising instruction, helped students become more self-regulated learners. From these findings, I have created a model of the positive spiral of successful learning with increased motivation.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS

7.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the implications of the study for Japanese university EFL classrooms, the limitations of the study and suggestions for the future research are discussed.

7.2. Implications of the study for Japanese university EFL classrooms

The instruction model, including learner autonomy support, was demonstrated to be beneficial in raising student motivation and performance in learning English. In addition, factors such as self-efficacy, metacognitive awareness of learning, confidence to achieve, sense of competence, and anticipation of successful learning, were found to positively contribute to enhancing student motivation.

From these findings, several points may be considered relevant to others wishing to develop an instruction model for students who originally have past experience of failure in learning English and limited motivation in Japanese university classrooms. Firstly, I recommend that autonomy support be provided for students

who have past unsuccessful learning experiences and limited levels of motivation. This support should include the instruction of cognitive learning strategies and adequate study habits, including ways of organizing their study plan. The individual cases of unsuccessful students demonstrated the strong need for this instruction, because students with past unsuccessful experiences did not know exactly how to study at the beginning of the course.

Secondly, providing students with continued opportunities to obtain a sense of efficacy, sense of competence, expectation of successful learning and metacognitive awareness are recommended. For this purpose, an adequate level of tests, including the instruction of self-monitoring with encouraging feedback, may be useful. Considering the student characteristics, teachers can develop easy and achievable tests for which all students have the possibility of obtaining successful results if they make an effort. This may be important in constructing favourable effort attribution. It should be remembered that the purpose of these tests is not to assess students, nor to confirm the effectiveness of the instruction, but to provide students with opportunities to reflect on their own learning and let them obtain a sense of efficacy, sense of competence, and anticipation of future successful learning. It was very interesting to discover that most of the successful students in this study had appreciated the continuous class tests at the end of the course.

Thirdly, it is important to guide students towards setting higher goals, or dreams,

in terms of learning English, once students begin to develop more self-determined regulation, such as integrative regulation. Long-term goal setting for the students with limited motivation seems to only be effective after students develop more self-regulated motivation. This guidance includes providing more communicative materials, such as a program from the Internet, more communicative instruction, such as discussions and interpretations, the offer of opportunities to make presentations and providing students with opportunities for a study abroad program. This guidance may contribute to forming a student's "international orientation" (Nakata, 1995) or "international posture" (Yashima, 2002), which are very important, especially for EFL students.

On a more theoretical level, the findings of this study add to our knowledge concerning the relationship between student motivation and performance in learning in that they illustrate raised motivation and acquired favourable cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies inevitable for the students' successful performance in learning.

To increase the effectiveness of the instruction model in enhancing student motivation and performance in learning English, three major improvements to the instruction model with learner autonomy support in the present study are suggested. Firstly, to strengthen the awareness-raising function, it is suggested that an instructor incorporate more detailed feedback for the self-reflection aspect included in the students study log. In addition, a larger section for

self-reflection can be provided with instruction, such as writing an "autobiography" (Benson, 2004). By writing an autobiography, students are able to reflect upon, and analyze, their own learning, increasing their awareness of their own perception towards learning. For the students with low proficiency, this can be written in Japanese until they feel comfortable writing in English.

Secondly, counselling sessions could usefully be included for the students who are experiencing difficulties in learning, or for the students who have high levels of anxiety or learned helplessness. If instructors are able to determine the problems that students have from the self-reflection aspect in the study log and provide those students with opportunities to discuss their problems with the instructor, students may be able to develop a more self-determined regulation.

Thirdly, it is suggested that the instructor incorporate peer-support group activities during the class to strengthen relatedness with other students. I believe that a class in which students can help each other freely, or a class which establishes study groups outside the class, perform better than students in a class without this support. Further study is required to investigate this point.

7.3. Implications of the present study's findings for L2 motivation research

The present research has contributed to L2 motivation research in two specific areas. Firstly, this study investigated the motivation of learners with specific

characteristics—namely, learners who were insufficiently motivated, demonstrated a low proficiency of English, and were at an insufficient level of academic readiness as university students in an EFL setting with no L2 immediately accessible community. Compared with many motivation studies focusing on L2 identity (Dörnyei, 2009a; Nakata, 2006; Yashima, 2002), the targeted students in this study possessed more serious problems at the outset. In other words, the participants of the present study had to overcome many problems before thinking about the relationship between English and themselves in a practical sense. Considering that many such students exist, especially in Japan (see 4.2.1), the findings of this exploratory practice can contribute to expanding the range in research related to L2 motivation.

Secondly, the present research investigated how students experience motivational change with different types of regulation through enhanced instruction. Such a longitudinal exploratory study has not been conducted before; thus, the findings of the present study can contribute to providing additional perspectives regarding students' general trends in motivational change and the causes of such change, along with practical suggestions in terms of teaching strategies.

7.4. Limitations of the study and recommendations for future research

This study has a number of limitations that call for caution when interpreting the results. The first limitation is derived from the small number of students in the class. Comparisons of answers in the questionnaire and the self-reports only allow tentative conclusions with 19 students in Group A and 21 students in Group B. Replication of the study with a larger population might contribute to obtaining more statistically significant results and analysis.

The second limitation was the setting of the class in terms of the location and level of proficiency. The targeted students were those who have limited motivation with past experience of repeated failure in learning English. For the sound generalizations to wider settings, students with other levels of proficiency should be investigated. In many ways, the findings may only apply to Japan. Future studies could explore the relationship between learner autonomy support and motivation in different settings.

The third limitation is derived from the reliance on self-report data. Future studies could determine more indirect ways of eliciting or triangulating data using different data collection techniques, such as interviewing, classroom observation, and counselling.

Future research recommendations include the investigation of the effectiveness

of relatedness among students. Systematic research concerning the relationship between student motivation and peer support among students might help provide insight into effective instruction models for Japanese university classrooms. In addition, future studies could explore the longer-term study for individual cases. Longitudinal studies over a longer period, such as four years of a university period, may help provide significant insights in terms of investigating motivational development.

7.5. Concluding statement: Contribution of the present research to my personal and professional development

I commenced this study with a strong motivation to help students who were extremely limited in their motivation to learn English to enhance their motivation and achieve successful learning. By analysing the self-reporting in three questionnaires during the study, I gradually came to realise that the most unsuccessful students did in fact have an unspoken and desperate desire to become successful students in learning English. Although they seemed to remain unmotivated, they still had the desire to gain confidence in learning and competence in English.

Many instructors at my university—including myself—tend to believe that several students will inevitably fail in every class; as a result, we often give up offering further support. I usually give up trying to help extremely unmotivated

students. However, this study has given me the opportunity to observe unsuccessful students more carefully than usual and to reflect on why they are unable to maintain motivation, change their attitude, or take positive actions towards learning. As such, this experience has been meaningful to my professional development and I have a better idea of how to help such students in future.

For the students in Group B, I was able to offer stronger support for their autonomy. At the end of the course, when one student who had previously showed a demotivated attitude in class said, "I understood how grammar is important to read sentences. English is interesting. I want to continue studying", I felt relieved and realised the importance of not giving up supporting them. At the same time, I have been struggling with feelings of guilt related to students in Group A because I was not able to give strong enough support for autonomy to help students with serious problems, even though I knew I should have done so.

Fortunately, I was given a teaching opportunity where two unsuccessful students in Group A and one in Group B came back to my class the year after the experiment as repeaters. This time, I was able to provide teaching strategies supporting learner autonomy to all students, without research restrictions. At the end of the course, I understood that even the most unsuccessful students who seemed not to change their motivation and attitude towards learning can change dramatically if adequate support for learner autonomy is provided. All of the

unsuccessful students developed more determined self-regulation and indicated high performance in learning; above all, they developed good communication with me during their second year. This experience was extremely meaningful and fortunate for my personal and professional development as I was able to notice that educators can always find a way to support students with limited motivation and help them become successful and autonomous learners.

During this study, I have become aware of the need for more research into a variety of aspects of providing support for learner autonomy and student motivation in specific contexts and settings, especially EFL settings in Japan. As a researcher and a teacher, I hope to continue to explore the possibility of changing the reality of Japanese EFL education to support students. Finally, although it is a limited contribution, I hope the findings of the present study can be useful to others who wish to implement autonomy support for their students.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Pre-course questionnaire

*This questionnaire is translated from Japanese by the author.

Name _____

Date _____

Please tell me about your English learning.

1. Please describe your learning history and analyze your competence in English?

2. Why do you learn English?

3. How do you want to learn in this class? If you have special requests to the instruction, please write them.

Appendix 2: The first questionnaire

*This questionnaire is translated from Japanese by the author.

The questionnaire about your English learning (part 2)

Name _____
Date _____

Please tell me about your English learning.

1. Do you feel that your motivation to study English is greater than it was at the beginning of this semester in September?
   Yes.
   No change.
   No it decreased.

2. Do you study more than before compared to the beginning of this semester?
   Yes.
   No.

3. How motivated are you to study English now?
   Very much
   Moderately
   Somewhat
   Not much
   Not at all

4. Do you have difficulties in studying English at home? If any, please write them down.

5. Do you have any problems in class? If any, please write them down.

Appendix 3: The second questionnaire

*This questionnaire is translated from Japanese by the author.

The questionnaire about your learning English (Part 2)

Name _____
Date _____

Please tell me about your English learning.

1. Do you feel that your motivation to study English has increased compared to the last time you answered this question?

   Yes.
   No change.
   No it decreased.

2. How motivated are you to study English now?

   Very much
   Moderately
   Somewhat
   Not much
   Not at all

3. Do you have difficulty studying English at home or in class? If any, please write down.

Appendix 4: The third questionnaire

*This questionnaire is translated from Japanese by the author.

The questionnaire about your English learning (part 3)
Name _____

Date _____

Please tell me about your English learning.

1. How long did you study before each class test?

5 minutes before the test
The day before the test for_____minutes
Others

2. Do you feel that your motivation has increased since the last time you answered this question?

Yes.
No change.
No it decreased.

3. How motivated are you to study English now?

Very much
Moderately
Somewhat
Not much
Not at all

4. Did you understand the evaluation system from the beginning?

Yes. No, I didn't.

5. Did you try to get good marks according to the system?

Yes. No, I didn't.

Why did you think so? Please write.

6. Did you plan your learning goals?

Yes. No, I didn't.
↓
Please write your learning goals.

7. Did you always know your accumulated scores?

Yes. No, I didn't.

8. Were you able to study as much as you wanted?

Yes. No, I was not.

Why do you think so? Please write.

9. Do you think that you have improved your proficiency in English as compared to before?

Yes. No, I don't.

Why do you think so? Please write.

10. Do you think learning English is interesting?

Yes. No, I don't.

When did you start thinking like that ?

Why do you think so? Please write.

11. Do you want to become more proficient in English?

Yes. No, I don't.

Why do you think so? Please write.

12. Do you like the system of taking a class test in every class?

Yes. No, I don't.

Why do you think so? Please write.

13. Do you want to keep studying English?

Yes. No, I don't.

Why do you think so? Please write.

14. Do you want to take elective, higher-level English classes?

Yes. No, I don't.

Why do you think so? Please write.

Appendix 5: Grammar diagnostic test

*This questionnaire is translated from Japanese by the author.
Students were asked to write the explanation of grammar in Japanese.

Grammar diagnostic test
Please try the following questions to find out which part of grammar you need more in-depth understanding.
Name _____

Date _____

[Definition of the terms]

1. What is the function of an adjective?

2. What is the function of an adverb?

3. Explain the difference between a complement and an object.

4. Explain the difference between an intransitive and transitive verb.

[-ing form: the progressive form, a gerund, an adverb]

Explain the function of the following –ing forms in detail.

5. The fish are dying in the lakes.

6. The boy reading a book is my brother.

7. Eating healthy food is important for you.

[Five sentence patterns]

Identify the sentence pattern. Underline and analyze the part of a sentence using s, v, o, c.

8. I eat an apple every evening.

9. I live in Tokyo.

10. He is sick in bed.

11. The tree grew very tall.

12. I will buy you lunch.

13. She made me sad.

14. She cooked dinner for me.

15. She gave me three pieces of bread.

16. I find it true.

17. The sun sets in the west.

[Infinitive]

Please explain the function of the underlined parts.

18. I came here <u>to talk</u> to you.

19. This is the cake <u>to eat</u>.

20. I have a large family <u>to support</u>.

21. <u>To play</u> tennis is fun.

22. I decided <u>to be</u> a doctor.

23. It is difficult for you <u>to learn</u> how to use this machine.

[-ed form: the passive, an adjective, the present perfect, past]

Please explain the function of the following –ed forms.

24. He used this old piano.

25. This old piano was used by a famous pianist.

26. People have always loved art.

27. I have just opened the box.

28. This is a dictionary used by him.

29. This is an used book.

30. The famous pianist used this old piano.

31. This is a dish cooked by him.

[A relative pronoun]

Connect the two sentences using a relative pronoun.

32. I met a person. He is my sister's friend.

33. I have a pen. I like it very much.

34. I know the boy. His father is a writer.

35. I know a girl. They all love her.

Now, how much did you answer correctly? Please identify which part of grammar you need more study and write your comments here.

Appendix 6: An example of class test

Name _____

Date _____

Please translate Japanese sentences into English.

1. 健康に良い食べ物を食べることは、あなたにとって良いことです。

２．次郎は泳ぐためにプールに行きました。

３．彼女は読むべき本をたくさん持っています。

４．フランス語はマスターするのに難しい。

５．私はテニスをするのが好きです。

*Translation

1. To eat healthy food is good for you.
2. Jiro went to the pool to swim.
3. She has a lot of books to read.
4. French is difficult to master.
5. I like to play tennis.

Appendix 7: A study log

Study
Log
Name:

Test number	Date	Grammar	scores	accumulated scores	average scores	Comments
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						
13						
14						
15						
16						
Total						

For Tests 14–16, scores should be counted twice..

Appendix 8: Students' answers to Question 1 in the first questionnaire

Question: "Do you feel that your motivation to study English is greater than it was at the beginning of this semester?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I am gradually understanding the grammar for the first time in my life. (sense of efficacy)
2. Because I started to understand the structure of a sentence and the role of grammar. (3) (sense of efficacy)
3. Because I was able to understand the parts which I did not before. (3) (sense of efficacy)
4. Because I learned how to study and am gaining basic competence in using English. (acquiring of learning skill, sense of efficacy, confidence in learning)
5. Because I learned how to get good marks on class tests. (2) (sense of efficacy)
6. Because I feel I will be left behind unless I understand the class. (anxiety, pressure) (introjected regulation)
7. Because I am interested in the class. (2) (intrinsic motivation)
8. Because I want to use English for my work in the future. (identified regulation)
9. Because the class is easy for me to understand. (3) (confidence to achieve)
10. Because I have to take a class test each time. (introjected regulation)

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I became able to understand the parts which I did not before. (4) (sense of efficacy)
2. Because I feel very good when I understand the parts which I did not before. In every class I feel that way. (continuous feeling of sense of efficacy)
3. Because I can get better marks on class tests than before. (sense of efficacy, appreciation of tangible rewards)

4. When I felt that I was able to understand perfectly, then I was able to answer the question correctly; I feel it is enjoyable. (sense of efficacy) (intrinsic motivation)
5. Because I became able to understand the parts which I did not like before, and then I found myself enjoying English. (sense of efficacy) (intrinsic motivation)
6. I forgot many grammatical things, but thanks to the class, I now remember them. So I feel that I am enjoying English. (sense of efficacy) (identified regulation) (intrinsic motivation)
7. Because the speed and the pace is very slow and easy to understand. This makes me motivated. (confidence to achieve)
8. The class is very easy to understand, and I feel that I can make progress if I study with high motivation. (confidence to achieve)
9. Because I feel that I can learn the basics. (confidence in learning)
10. Because I realized I have forgotten many things and I thought I have to study more. (identified regulation)
11. Because if I skip classes, it is very difficult to get credit for the class. (anxiety, pressure) (introjected regulation)
12. Because I have to take a class test every time. This system makes me feel that I really have to study and makes me motivated. (introjected regulation)
13. Because I can learn the basics of English. (2) (identified regulation)
14. Because I want to improve my English. (identified regulation)

Group A who answered “no” provided the following reasons:

1. Because I do not like English” (lack of interest)
2. Because I was highly motivated even before.”

Group B who answered “no” provided the following reasons:

1. Because I do not like English” (lack of interest).
2. Because I am not good at English (lack of confidence).
3. Because I kept the same level of motivation as before.”

Appendix 9: Students' answers to Question 2 in the first questionnaire

Question: "Do you study more than before (compared to the beginning of this semester)?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I have to take class test in the class every time" (external regulation)
2. Because I want to get rid of my feeling that I am not good at English. (anxiety, introjected regulation)
3. Because I thought I have to prepare for the class. (introjected regulation)
4. Because I need to get credit for this class. (external regulation)

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I want to get full marks in all of the class tests. (goal-oriented motivation, identified regulation)
2. Because I want to get better marks on the class test (2). (identified regulation)
3. Because I want to get good marks on the TOEIC test. (identified regulation)
4. I want to become good at English. (identified regulation)
5. Because I have to take a class test each time (2). (external regulation)
6. Because it is enjoyable to feel that I can read the words, which I was not able to before. (intrinsic motivation)
7. Because I was able to find out which parts of the grammar I did not understand. So now, it is much easier to study. (identified regulation)
8. I used to avoid studying the parts which I did not understand. But now, I am trying to face them. (identified regulation)
9. The speed and the pace of the class are good for me, so it is easy to study at home. (identified regulation)
10. The textbook is very interesting. (intrinsic motivation)

11. I studied hard last year, but I realized I forgot many things. So I decided to study more. (identified motivation)

Group A who answered “no” provided the following reasons:

1. Because I do not have time to study. (lack of self-management)
2. I know that I have to study, but I am not able to do it. (lack of self-management)
3. I do not know what to do. (lack of study skills)
4. I do not know how to study. (lack of study skills)

Group B who answered “no” provided the following reasons:

1. Because I keep my own pace of studying.
2. Because I keep the same pace of studying as before.(2)

Appendix 10: Students' answers to Question 4 in the first questionnaire

Question: "Do you have difficulty studying English at home? If any, please write them down,"

Group A

1. I do not know what to study and how to study. (2)
2. I do not know how much I should study.
3. I do not have enough time to study English, because I have many things to do (other subjects to study, part time jobs, and club activities).

Group B

1. I want to know which part I should study more to be able to improve my English.
2. I do not have enough vocabulary to read long paragraphs, such as in the newspaper.
3. I do not know what to do to study English other than preparing for this class.
4. I cannot memorize the parts which I should.
5. I am not good at listening.
6. I cannot understand the basic grammar (more than the level of this class) by reading the text. Please tell me the easy way to review the very basic material.

   I am not good at English and I know I have to study more. But I do not understand how.

Appendix 11: Students' answers to Question 5 in the first questionnaire

Question: "Do you have any problems in the class? If any, please write them down,"

Group A

1. Please give me more sample sentences, so that I can practice more.
2. Please speak slowly all the time. Sometimes you speak too quickly.
3. Please review what we did in the previous lesson quickly at the beginning of the class.

Group B

1. I repeat careless mistakes many times. I always find out my mistakes after the test is over. Please tell me how to avoid this.
2. Please speak loudly all the time. Sometimes it is difficult to hear you.
3. I want to go abroad. Please tell me how to study for the TOEFL.
4. I have the motivation to study, but I cannot get better marks. Perhaps my level is much lower than other students. I am worried whether I can catch up with the others.
5. Please give me more time to practice writing.

Appendix 12: Students' answers to Question 1 in the second questionnaire

Question: "Do you feel that your motivation to study English has increased compared to the last time you answered this question?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I became able to understand grammar. (sense of efficacy)
2. I feel that I am able to understand English. (2) (sense of efficacy)
3. Because my marks on the class tests are increasing. (sense of efficacy)
4. Because I must master various kinds of grammar. (identified regulation)
5. Because I have to get credit. (external regulation)
6. Because I have to study; otherwise I cannot catch up to the class. (introjected regulation)
7. Because I feel the pleasure of learning to understand grammar. (intrinsic motivation)
8. Because I am afraid of failing because of the low marks on the previous reading test. (anxiety, introjected regulation)
9. Because I was not able to get good marks. I want to get credit for this class. (anxiety, introjected regulation)

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I came to understand the difference between what I understand and what I do not, and was able to understand the unclear parts. (2) (metacognitive awareness, identified regulation)
2. Because my marks are good enough to pass and I feel like looking for the unclear parts of my English. (metacognitive awareness, intrinsic motivation)
3. Because I started understanding what I did not understand. (3) (metacognitive awareness, sense of efficacy, identified regulation)
4. Because I became able to understand the sentence structure and the chances that I can read sentences increased. (metacognitive awareness, sense of efficacy)

5. Since I was able to start from the basics, I was able to clarify the parts of the grammar which I did not understand. (metacognitive awareness, sense of efficacy)
6. Because the fact that I understand positively affected the marks. (metacognitive awareness, sense of efficacy)
7. Because I feel that I am making progress. (metacognitive awareness, sense of efficacy)
8. Because I made many mistakes in the last reading test and decided to study more. (metacognitive awareness, goal setting)
9. Because the instructor encouraged me and gave me good advice on what to do. (relatedness with the instructor, tangible reward)
10. Because the instructor encouraged me to study hard. I do not like English, but I feel I would like to study when I see the instructor. (relatedness with the instructor, encouragement)
11. I have experienced the feeling that "I understand" in class, and then it became more enjoyable to study English. (sense of efficacy, intrinsic motivation)
12. Because I want to overcome my poor results on the previous reading test. (identified regulation)
13. Because I want to get better marks on the test. (identified regulation)
14. I want to improve my English. (identified regulation)
15. Because I study hard for the class test in every class.
16. Because the class is easy to understand. (confidence in achievement)

Group A who answered "no change" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I do not like English. (lack of interest)
2. Because I do not know how to study. (lack of cognitive learning strategy)

Group B who answered “no change” provided the following reasons:

1. Because I do not like English. (lack of interest)
2. Because I have been highly motivated before.

Appendix 13: Students' answers to Question 3 in the second questionnaire

Question: "Do you have difficulty studying English at home or in class? If any, please write down."

Group A

1. I do not know how to study.
2. I want to know how to memorize words effectively.
3. I do not understand 'infinitive' and 'gerund'
4. I cannot get good marks on class tests. I recently realized that my study method is wrong.
5. Reading long paragraphs is difficult.
6. I still do not understand grammar in detail.
7. I do not know how to prepare for the reading tests.

Group B

1. I want to know how to prepare for the TOEFL.
2. I am not good at speaking.
3. I have many problems and I do not know what they are.
4. I am worried about my final scores.
5. I want to study basic grammar more.
6. I do not know what to do now.
7. I am not good at listening.
8. I cannot use grammatical knowledge when I read long passages.(2)
9. I cannot remember many words and grammar.

Appendix 14: Students' answers to Question 2 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Do you feel that your motivation has increased since the last time you answered this question?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. I have a fear of failing this class because I do not have enough marks. (9) (introjected regulation)
2. I do not have enough grammatical knowledge, so I decided to master it. (identified regulation)
3. Because the instructor told me about grammar in detail. (relationship with the instructor)

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. When I realized I can understand, I started to feel that I want to understand more. (sense of efficacy, identified regulation)
2. Because the parts I do not understand became clearer. (metacognitive awareness, identified regulation)
3. Because I want to master the parts I am not good at. (metacognitive awareness, identified regulation)
4. Because the marks in each test directly affect the final score. (sense of efficacy, identified regulation)
5. Because I realized that the more I study, the better marks I can get. (2) (sense of efficacy, identified regulation)
6. Because I started thinking about studying abroad. (2) (new goal setting, integrated regulation)
7. I started feeling that I want to make use of English for my future. (new goal setting, integrated regulation)
8. When the class tests and reading tests were returned to me, I noticed that my marks

were not as good as I thought and I wanted to get better marks. (4) (metacognitive awareness)

9. Because of this class, I started feeling that learning English is enjoyable. (intrinsic motivation)
10. I started to get good marks on the class tests and I was able to maintain my motivation. (sense of efficacy)

Group A who answered “no” provided the following reasons:

1. Because I have been motivated enough. (2)
2. I studied, but I did not get good marks. (failure to get sense of efficacy)
3. Because I am not good at English. (lack of confidence)

Group B who answered “no” provided the following reasons:

1. Because I have been motivated enough.
2. Because I already got enough marks to get credit. (external regulation)
3. Because I am not good at English. (lack of confidence)

Appendix 15: Students' answers to Question 5 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Did you try to get good marks according to the evaluation system?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I want to get credit. (6)
2. Because I want to get a good final evaluation. (2)
3. Because I do not want to be in panic at the end.
4. Because I want to get into the habit of studying English. (identified regulation)

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I want to get credit.(7)
2. Because I want to get as good a final evaluation as possible. (4) (higher goal setting)
3. Because I do not want to be in a panic at the end.
4. Because I learned that the more I study, the better marks I can get. (sense of efficacy)
5. Because I feel better if I can get a better final evaluation. (sense of efficacy)
6. Because I want to improve my English (2) (identified regulation)
7. Because I can see my results and progress objectively. (sense of efficacy)
8. Because I think each class test is important. (identified regulation)

Group A who answered "no" provided the following reasons:

1. I thought I could take a long final exam and I would be evaluated by that.
2. I was not able to take notice of the evaluation system. (2)
3. I did not understand the evaluation system at all.
4. Because I am not good in English.
5. I thought I would be able to get credit.

Group B who answered “no” provided the following reasons:

1. Because I got a good mark in several class tests and I thought I would get credit.
2. Because there was a period when I lost discipline.

Appendix 16: Students' answers to Question 6 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Did you plan your learning goal?"　"What was your goal?"

Group A

1. To get credit.
2. To get more than 60% of the marks on the test. (6)
3. To get more than 80% of the marks on the test.
4. To get full marks on each class test. (3)
5. To get 20% of the marks on the test.

Group B

1. To get more than 60% of the marks on the tests. (3)
2. To get more than 80% of the marks on the tests. (6)
3. To get full marks on each class test. (3)
4. To get more than 90% of the final score, including the reading tests. (3)

Appendix 17: Students' answers to Question 7 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Why are you studying English?"

Group A

1. To get credit for this class. (13)
2. To be able to use English. (2)
3. For my future. (4)
4. Because English is a common language.
5. When I start working, English will be necessary.

Group B

1. To get credit for this class. (9)
2. To make use of English in my future career. (8)
3. To be able to communicate with people in English.
4. To be able to use basic English.
5. Because I have been studying (English) for many years.
6. Because I want to master English grammar.
7. Because I want to go abroad.
8. Because I want to use English more fluently.
9. Because I like English.

Appendix 18: Students' answers to Question 8 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Were you able to study as much as you wanted?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because of the class tests and reading tests I had to take. I increased the time for studying English compared to before.
2. Because I studied hard. (2)
3. Because the method of instruction was good.
4. Because I became able to understand English. (sense of efficacy)
5. Because I understand English grammar for the first time of my life. (sense of efficacy)
6. Because I was able to understand the instruction. (sense of efficacy)

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I establish my way of learning English. (2) (integrated regulation)
2. Because it was easy for me to prepare for this class.
3. Because I was able to review the grammar from the basics. I realized that unless I understand the grammar, learning English cannot be interesting. (metacognitive awareness)
4. Because I noticed that my English is improving. (2) (sense of efficacy)
5. Because the instruction is easy to understand. (4)
6. Because I was able to understand with the help of my friends. (relatedness, help-seeking)
7. Because the instructor taught us grammar very slowly and clearly.
8. Because I learned how to study. (metacognitive awareness, integrated regulation)

Group A who answered “no”

1. Because I lost my discipline. (lack of study habit)
2. Because I had other subjects to study. (lack of study habit)
3. Because my way of learning was not good. (lack of study skill)
4. Because I did not have enough motivation to study. (lack of motivation)
5. Because I had to take a class test each time, I do not know when I study hard. (lack of study skill)
6. Because I did not have time to study. (2) (lack of study habit)
7. Because I did not study, other than in class. (lack of study habit)
8. Because I do not know the way of learning which is good for me. (lack of study skill)
9. Because I did not make progress. (lack of the sense of efficacy)

Group B who answered “no”

1. I did some other things when I was supposed to study. (lack of study habit)
2. I studied for this class, but other than that, I did not study English. (2)
3. Because I did not know what to do other than preparing for the test.
4. I planned my study time, but I was not able to study as planned.
5. Because I do not know how to study. (lack of study skill)
6. Since I did not know the very basic grammar, I did not understand the difficult grammar.

Appendix 19: Students' answers to Question 9 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Do you think that you have improved your proficiency in English as compared to before?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I came to understand the grammar, which I did not before. (4)
2. Because I mastered the basics of English. (4)
3. Because I was able to get better marks than before on class tests.
4. Because I became motivated.
5. Because I memorized something.
6. Because I studied. (2)
7. Because I became able to use the grammar when I read English. (3)

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I studied mainly basic grammar. (2)
2. Because I came to understand the grammar, which I did not before. (6)
3. Because my way of reading English improved.
4. Because my negative feeling towards learning English has decreased.
5. Because I feel that my English has been improved.
6. Because the instructor told me why I did not understand some grammatical points.
7. Because I became able to read English more precisely. (2)
8. Because I studied hard.
9. Because I was able to get better marks than before on the class test.
10. I used to hate reading, but now I feel like reading more English.

Appendix 20: Students' answers to Question 10 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Do you think learning English is interesting?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because recently, I came to understand the basics.
2. Because conversation and the class content are interesting.
3. Because English is cool.
4. Because recently, I have been able to read long passages.
5. It is enjoyable to read passages without using a dictionary.
6. Without any particular reasons.

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because recently, I came to understand the grammar. (8)
2. Recently, I came to understand the news in English.
3. Because the class is easy to understand.
4. Because I noticed that it is a global society.
5. Because I enjoy listening to English songs.
6. Because it would be good if I could speak English.

Group A who answered "no" provided the following reasons:

1. I did not make progress, even if I studied. (2)
2. Because I do not understand grammar in detail.
3. Because I was not able to get good marks on the tests.
4. Because I am not good at English.
5. Because it is not interesting.
6. Because it is difficult. (2)
7. Because grammar is complicated.

8. Because I do not like English.

Group B who answered “no” provided the following reasons:

1. Because there are so many words and it is complicated.
2. Because English is difficult.

Appendix 21: Students' answers to Question 11 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Do you want to become more proficient in English?"

Group A　who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I need English for my future career. (8)
2. Because my English proficiency is not good enough. (5)
3. Because it is cool if I can speak English fluently.
4. Because I want to go abroad by myself.
5. Because I want to enjoy watching movies without subtitles.
6. So that I will not have to have problems getting good marks.

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I need English for my future career. (4)
2. Because it is useful in many ways if I can use English. (2)
3. Because my English proficiency is not good enough.
4. Because I want to communicate with foreigners. (3)
5. Because I want to go abroad by myself.
6. Because I want to improve my listening skills.
7. Because there are many more skills I want to improve other than grammar.
8. Because I want to improve my speaking skills. (3)
9. Because I want to improve my writing skills.
10. I have studied hard, so I do not want to stop studying.
11. Because English is a common language.
12. Because it would be fun if I could speak fluently.
13. Because I want to get good TOEIC scores.

Appendix 22: Students' answers to Question 12 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Do you like the system of taking a class test in every class?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. It was good, because I was able to get into a habit of studying. (5)
2. I wish I could have studied seriously. (3)
3. It was easy for me to study, rather than one long exam. (2)
4. It was good, because I was able to review the class. (3)
5. I now realize how one class test was important for my learning.

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. This system is designed so we get a good final evaluation if we study, so it is good.
2. This system is designed for students to attend the class, so it is good. (2)
3. It was good because I was able to get into a habit of studying. (3)
4. This system was good for my progress. (2)
5. I wanted to try hard because of the class tests.
6. It was easy for me to study, rather than one long exam. (2)
7. Each class test reminded me of my weak points, so it was very good.

Group A who answered "no" provided the following reasons:

1. It was very hard to study, because there were too many tests. (5)
2. There were too many tests, so I did not know when I should study hard.

Group B who answered “no” provided the following reasons:

1. It was hard for me, because I was not able to be absent from a class. (2)
2. When I was busy, it was hard for me to study for a class test.

Appendix 23: Students' answers to Question 13 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Do you want to keep studying English?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I want to remember what I learned in this class.
2. If I stop studying now, my English will be incomplete.
3. Because I can use English in my future career. (4)
4. Because I want to understand English.
5. Because I want to become more proficient in English. (2)
6. Because I gradually became able to understand English. (2)
7. Because English is a common language.

Group B who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. I think I can make more progress if I study more. (4)
2. Because I want to keep what I learned in this class.
3. Because I can use English in my future career. (5)
4. Because I want to make use of what I learned in this class and understand more widely (3).
5. Because I want to communicate with foreigners.(2)
6. Because I still have difficulty in reading.
7. Because I want to be fluent in English.
8. Because I want to get good scores on the TOEIC.
9. Because learning English is fun.

Group A who answered "no" provided the following reasons:

1. Because it will take a long time until I can speak English.
2. Because it is difficult.
3. Because I was not able to get good marks in this class.
4. Because I will not use English.
5. Because I do not need English.

Group B who answered “no” provided the following reason:

1. I want to improve, but I fear that I may not be able to catch up with the other students in a class.

Appendix 24: Students' answers to Question 14 in the third questionnaire

Question: "Do you want to take elective, higher-level English classes?"

Group A who answered "yes" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I will be able to say, "I studied English hard at university," in a job hunting activity.
2. Because it is useful for me. (2)
3. I want to understand more, because I am not good at English. (2)
4. If I stop learning, I will not be able to maintain my present level of English.
5. Because I want to be able to speak English.
6. Because I want to become more proficient in English.
7. Because I want to get credit in all the English-related subjects.

Group B who answered "yes"

1. Because I need English for my future career. (3)
2. Because I want to become more proficient in English. (6)
3. Because I want to go abroad.
4. Because I want to get good scores on the TOEIC.
5. Because I want to remember what I learned in this class.

Group A who answered "no" provided the following reasons:

1. Because I do not have time and I have other things to do. (2)
2. I think I cannot get credit in such a high level class. (3)
3. Because I do not need this.

Group B who answered “no” provided the following reasons:

1. Because I do not have time and I have other things to do. (2)
2. If it is a small class, I will be nervous.
3. I want to learn other languages. (3)